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JANUARY
1952

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

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1952-53

IMPROVING PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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THE TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD is issued eight times a year, monthly except June, July, August, and September. The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; foreign postage, 50 cents; Canadian postage, 30 cents. Single numbers are sold at 45 cents each. Publication office, 1407 Sherwood Avenue, Richmond, Va., and 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, N. Y. Editorial and general offices at the latter address. Printed in the United States of America. Entered as second class matter December 8, 1938, at the Post Office at Richmond, Va., under Act of March 3, 1879, and accepted at special rates of postage in accordance with Act of October 3, 1917. Copyright 1952, by TEACHERS COLLEGE, Columbia University.

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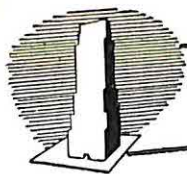
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TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

Foreword

THIS issue of THE RECORD presents reports of the 1951 Teachers College Alumni Conference. The purpose in publishing them is twofold: first, to provide a summary of the discussions for those who attended the conference; second, to share the results of the deliberations with those who could not attend. There was ample evidence that members of the conference, both alumni and faculty of the College, found the experience stimulating and valuable. It is hoped that those who read the reports will, through them, share in some of the values of the conference.

The conference was organized around the theme "Improving Professional Leadership in American Schools and Colleges." This theme was selected because of the great challenges facing education today and the need for able, inspired leadership if these challenges are to be met. The plan was to make two general presentations to all members of the conference, and to follow these by group discussions of particular phases of leadership preparation, the conclusions of which were reported to the conference as a whole in the final session. Each group

had a reporter, who made the concluding statement, and a recorder, who prepared the written report presented herewith.

Addresses were given at the opening session by Charles Dollard, President of the Carnegie Corporation, and William F. Russell, President of Teachers College. President Dollard dealt with "Today's Challenge for Educational Leadership." His penetrating analysis of the crisis facing our nation gave the conference a broad perspective and directed discussion to fundamental problems of educational planning. His paper is published herein. President Russell considered "Steps We Must Take to Meet the Challenge." He built on Mr. Dollard's presentation, emphasizing the critical role that organized education plays in a time of crisis and suggesting ways in which American education can better fill this role. His address will be published at a later date.

Discussion groups, composed of alumni and faculty, were organized around the following topics:

- I. Organization and Administration of Programs Preparing for Leadership Positions

- II. Recruitment, Selection, and Guidance of Students Preparing for Leadership Positions
- III. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Curriculum Organization
- IV. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Instruction
- V. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Field Activities
- VI. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Research and Experimentation

Reports by the recorders for the various groups, which follow Mr. Dollard's address, give an excellent indication of the nature and scope of the discussion.

In addition to the general sessions and the discussion groups, opportunity was provided for alumni to become acquainted with recent developments at the College and to visit with friends on the faculty. The Dean made a report on important aspects of the College program. All departments held open house meetings at which new course offerings and special projects were discussed, and new members of the staff were presented. An all-conference luncheon was held in the cafeteria, with Dr. Thomas J. Pullen, State Superintendent in Maryland, act-

ing as chairman. President Russell entertained at tea in his home.

This was the third Teachers College Alumni Conference. The central purpose of the conferences is to provide an opportunity for alumni and faculty to consider together educational matters of current importance and to appraise the role in educational advance which Teachers College is playing and should play. For the faculty the conference offers a valuable opportunity to secure informed field evaluations of our program. For the alumni it gives a chance to become acquainted with recent developments at the College. Expressions from both alumni and faculty indicate that the conference is highly valuable to both groups.

Attendance at the conference is on an invitational basis so that the group may be limited in size and thus make easy discussion possible. Each year a different group is invited so that over a period of years a substantial number of alumni will have had opportunity to participate. As was stated at the beginning, it is hoped that through these pages many others in addition to those who attended the conference may share to some extent in the outcomes.

HOLLIS L. CASWELL
Dean of Teachers College

The Present Challenge to Education

CHARLES DOLLARD

PRESIDENT OF CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK

THE topic to which President Russell and I have been asked to address ourselves implies that our nation is in a period of crisis and that the nature of this crisis is such as to present an especial challenge to educators.

I assume that no one would be disposed to deny the reality of this implication. We *are* in a crisis. Our common sense and our accurate, if belated, reading of the intentions and aspirations of Russia have led us to establish, chiefly by conscription, an army, a navy and an air force far larger than we have ever before maintained in peacetime. We have voted vast sums of money and increased our taxes in order that we may resist aggression in the Far East and help to build a dam which will keep the Russians from flooding Europe. We have, almost without dissent, pledged our sons, our money, and our goods to defend ourselves and other free peoples against the most ruthless and most ingenious force which the world has known since the fall of the Roman Empire.

These facts, and the measures we have taken in recognition of them, might well reduce us to a state of panic; indeed, it is fair to say that they *have* reduced a minority of Americans to a state of panic—a state in which they lash out blindly against their fellow citizens and against all who believe that panic is not the ideal mood in which to face a crisis. Fortunately, the majority of our citizens are

not in panic, because, knowing at least a little American history, they recall that crises have been epidemic in this country since Plymouth Rock. And those American citizens who know more than a little of the history of this country also understand that as a people we have learned to use crises to strengthen our character and to define and perfect our national policy, much as an aspiring boxer uses a punching bag to strengthen his arms and a skipping rope to develop his leg muscles.

Let me illustrate by a few examples what I mean when I say that we have used crises to strengthen our character as a people and to define and perfect our national policy. Immediately prior to 1776, there was disagreement in this country as to whether we were best advised to remain a colony of Great Britain or to assert our independence. The historians tell us that the weight of opinion was strongly in favor of the former course and that it was only when it became clear that the liberties which the colonies had fostered and cherished for one hundred fifty years were in danger that the break came.

I need not remind you that the resulting crisis produced the two documents which we now regard as the basic statements of our national creed.

A little more than seventy-five years later we were in disagreement as to the ethics and the legality of permitting the

spread of the institution of slavery into the new lands which were being opened west of the Mississippi. The question was a tough one because it involved the moral issue of slavery and the legal issue of states' rights—two issues about which Americans have felt and still feel deeply. The disagreement was made explicit in the Dred Scott Case. The issue of slavery was settled by the Civil War. The question of states' rights is still being debated and will doubtless continue to be debated for years.

I could cite a dozen other examples, all of which would be as familiar to you as they are to me. If any of you are interested in a further elaboration of this theory of crisis as a refining and strengthening element in American life, I refer you to a book soon to be published under the editorship of Daniel Aaron of Smith College and based on an experimental course in American history which Mr. Aaron directed at Bennington College.

Now if you grant that our national life has been a series of crises and if you will grant further that one function of education is to provide the nation with men who have the stamina, the character, and the intelligence to carry the nation through crises, it follows, I think, that education in America has always been faced with a challenge of one kind or another. Indeed, I think it is this constant necessity to face challenges which, in large measure, accounts for the remarkable vitality and strength of the American educational system.

About twelve years ago President Russell, in a prophetic speech given at this College, warned that France could not be counted on to check the German aggression or even to defend its own borders—not for lack of troops or material but chiefly because its educational

system had lost its dynamism and had left France lacking the moral and intellectual leadership which provides the only real defense for any nation.

In a very recent speech delivered shortly after his return from a summer in Europe, President Russell reported the end results of this failure of the French schools to face the challenge of their times. The French people, he said, have to a considerable degree lost confidence in their public schools and are moving to create independent schools, for the most part affiliated with the Catholic Church. These new schools are pressing for tax support, and all the signs are that they will get it. While President Russell does not so prophesy in the paper to which I refer, it seems reasonable to predict that if this trend continues France will soon have, not a single system of elementary and secondary schools, but a number of competing systems, each representing a sectarian interest. In the long run, such a development might well increase the disunity which already has weakened France.

Without attempting a full historical treatment of what has happened to various national school systems in our time, I should like to remind you that it was the despair and disillusionment of German school teachers which made possible, in large part, the rise of Hitler; and it was the traditional subservience and lack of independence of Japanese teachers which laid the predicate for the Japanese imperialism which led to the invasion of Manchuria and which culminated in Pearl Harbor and the final and complete defeat of Japan as a nation.

Now I realize full well that I run a considerable risk in interpreting the tragic events of the past twenty years wholly in terms of the strength or weakness of the public education systems of

various nations of the world. History is much more complex than that. It could be argued that the two wars of the twentieth century and the aftermath of hunger and despair which came in their wake might well have occurred even given school systems of the greatest strength and integrity throughout the world. School teachers, my critics might say, do not make history. They are only a part of history like the rest of us.

In answering these critics I should be the last to deny that schools are in large part a product of their time and place. The best schools cannot graft onto young people a system of values or ideas that is foreign to the culture in which the young people live or is denied by the behavior of the adults who make up their society. The best schoolteacher cannot convince a hungry child that his belly is full and that this is the best of all possible worlds. Schoolteachers are not magicians, nor does anyone expect them to be.

But I should have to say in answer to my critics, if it is true that schoolteachers by themselves cannot create Utopia, it is equally true, I think, that Utopia or any faint approximation of Utopia may never be achieved in any society without the intelligent, active, and sustained cooperation of those who man the public school system. Dictators understand this truth perhaps even better than democratic leaders do. If you think I overstate the case, remember the speed with which Hitler moved to seize the German schools and the speed with which the Communists are even now moving, not only in Russia but in France and other European countries as well, to try to capture the teachers. The Stalins, the Hitlers, and the Mussolinis know that to control a society over any long period of time, one must first gain *absolute* control of its educational system.

Now teachers and trainers of teachers and leaders of teachers in this country are by no means in the dilemma which confronted Japanese teachers in the thirties or forties and the German teachers after the emergence of Hitler. You are not faced with the grim choices of accepting a system which you know in your hearts to be evil, or of fighting the system at the risk of your own lives, or of becoming expatriates. However much a few unprincipled men may dislike the fact, America is still free and the public school system which has been developing since the time of Jefferson is still free. But I must confess that it does not seem wholly clear to me that either America or its schools will remain free.

I think this brings us to the challenge which the schools face today: How can our system of public education and higher education contribute to keeping America free?

Perhaps the best way to define this challenge in specific terms is to consider the bulwarks of freedom as we know it. I think we would all agree that there are at least three such bulwarks. The first of these might be called our traditions as a people. We are the descendants of rebels who, having loyally served the Crown, revolted against the injustice of the Crown and declared their independence. This is the beginning of our tradition of freedom, in the New World at least, and the documents in which the first statement of the tradition are embodied are the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

Through the years this tradition of freedom has been reaffirmed and elaborated generation after generation—by Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, the two Roosevelts, and Woodrow Wilson. Associated with the tradition are the names of hallowed

places where our ancestors, our brothers, and our sons died to preserve freedom—Valley Forge, Lexington and Concord, Gettysburg and Bull Run, Belleau Woods, Pearl Harbor and Bastogne. Associated with the tradition also are the Stars and Stripes and the anthem with which we open and close all public gatherings, and all the other symbols which remind us of what we have inherited and what we love.

A second bulwark of American freedom might be called the institutional bulwark, which comprises all the various pieces of machinery which have been devised to keep freedom operative. One of these is our system of courts, through which individuals secure the rights guaranteed to them by the Constitution. Another is our free press (the fourth estate as the French have called it), which operates as the vigilante of the people and insures that infringements of freedom will be exposed and punished. A third and most important piece of institutional machinery for the defense of freedom is our school system. At its higher reaches, this system is supported about equally by public and by private funds, the public funds coming primarily from state treasuries, with the result that the federal government has almost no control over university and college work. I shall not linger for a discussion of higher education except to record the judgment that it is the decentralization of control of higher education which is largely responsible for its vitality.

Our elementary and public schools, which constitute perhaps the most important unit of our institutional machinery for making democracy work and for preserving freedom, are by tradition and by the will of the American people almost entirely subject to local control. By and large, they are also sup-

ported by public funds, locally derived, the number of private schools being relatively small in terms of our total school population.

Because we believe in education as a means of improving the conditions of life and, more importantly, because we realize that to grant the franchise to illiterate people is a form of national suicide, we require, through state laws and local ordinances, that almost every boy and girl born in this country shall get at least an elementary and high school education. One needs to say "almost" because there are, unfortunately, large areas of the country, especially rural areas in the South, where children are still short-changed in the matter of elementary and high school education. Nevertheless, it is our fixed purpose to see that all our sons and daughters have the benefit of at least twelve years of schooling.

Part of our purpose in this required schooling is, of course, to train young men and women to play useful roles in the economic life of the country. Ours is a complex society, and the youth who are to enter it as productive and self-sustaining members must have a considerable amount of training. But this is only one reason, and I think not the most important one, why we have agreed that all our boys and girls will have a minimum amount of education. A more important reason is that we know that our traditions are valueless unless each succeeding generation of Americans understands them; and that the institutions which exist to protect and perpetuate our freedom will not function unless all of the people lend a hand to make them function. The central purpose, then, of our required education for all young people is to equip them to function as citizens of a republic—a republic which will be free only as long as all of its

members understand what makes it free and have the will to keep it free.

At this point, it is well to remind ourselves that freedom is not an American invention. Greek citizens enjoyed freedom before the time of Christ—that is those few citizens who did not have the bad luck to be born into slavery. Since the time of the Magna Carta, British citizens have enjoyed most of the political freedoms of which we boast. But to the Greek citizen of pre-Christian times and to the British citizen of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, such rights as due process were very likely to be empty rights because few citizens had the money or the status to enable them to take their grievances to court or to protect themselves against abridgments of their rights. What distinguishes our American society from others is that we enjoy not only political freedom but social and economic freedom as well—freedom to improve our fortunes as our energies and talents permit, freedom to move up or down the social scale in terms of our abilities rather than in terms of our blood or birth. These political, social, and economic freedoms which we enjoy are all part of one package, and this country would not be the same if any single part of the package were to be lost or sacrificed.

The third and most important bulwark of freedom in America is the group of human beings who comprise this republic. In one sense, freedom may be compared to the muscles of one's body. Lacking regular exercise, these grow soft and flabby and soon become so covered with fat that they are almost useless. So it is with freedom, which remains supple and effective only by virtue of constant use. Unless we can maintain in this country a constant flow of men and women who have the courage and the

intelligence to use freedom wisely, the traditions and institutions developed at great cost over the past hundred and seventy-five years will avail us little.

Of course the public schools of this country have always had the problem of developing men and women capable of understanding their traditions, cherishing their institutions, and using freedom wisely. This is no new problem, but I think it is more acute today than at any time in the past for two reasons.

First, the whole principle of freedom is under violent attack both abroad and at home. Since all of us read the daily papers, I need neither particularize nor illustrate this declarative statement. If Mr. Stalin could dictate our curriculum, he would have us teach our children that everything about America is wrong; if some of our native Fascists could dictate the curriculum, they would have us teach our children that everything about America is right, and that we should declare a moratorium on all self-criticism. The first alternative is obviously very much worse than the second, but to a teacher worth his salt neither alternative is a very palatable one. I submit that one test of the strength and vitality of our public schools in the next twenty years will be their ability to avoid both these extremes and instead to produce citizens with complete intellectual and emotional loyalty to the basic principles of America without at the same time producing blind and unthinking conformists who will be easy victims of an American Hitler or an American Mussolini.

The second fact which makes the problem of producing good citizens more difficult today than in the past is that we have discovered belatedly that we cannot have either freedom or peace on this continent without also having freedom and peace elsewhere in the

world. This faces us with the necessity of educating our boys and girls not only to be good Americans but also to function in a world in which national boundaries are steadily becoming less important. This is no easy task in a nation which has traditionally believed that its salvation lay in isolating itself from the tensions and quarrels which have for centuries racked the old world. And it will not be enough to teach our children that we are kin to those who share our language and our political institutions; we must also make them understand and respect all those other peoples who share our love of freedom, whatever their religion, their color, their language, or their political forms.

This then is the challenge: that the public schools give us young citizens who know our history and our tradition and cherish both, who understand our democratic institutions and value them beyond all other things, who are prepared to sacrifice negative freedoms for positive ones, and who understand that we cannot cut this continent loose from the rest of the globe and disengage ourselves from the infinitely complicated problems which trouble this planet today. If the educators of America will face this challenge and do their level best to meet it, our public schools, our colleges, and our universities will have the full and effective support of all the American people.

I. Organization and Administration of Programs Preparing for Leadership*

ELWOOD L. PRESTWOOD, *Recorder*

SINCE effective leadership in a democracy is essential and since Teachers College is preparing leaders for many fields in our democracy, the College is always seeking ways of learning what types of programs are needed for their preparation. The Alumni Homecoming is one of the means employed to learn from those in the field what kind of preparation for leadership is needed.

The chairman of Group I demonstrated some of the methods being used at Teachers College to organize and administer programs preparing for leadership positions. The group was composed of approximately 60 people representing various backgrounds and positions. Since it was felt that all programs for leadership have many problems and areas in common, it was agreed that a good way to "frame the target" for the group's work would be to have those present respond to the question, What problems have you and others encountered in organizing and administering programs designed to prepare for leadership positions?

In answer to the question some twenty issues and problems were presented. A careful analysis of these revealed that they could be classified logically under three major headings. The group then

* Professor John K. Norton served as chairman of Group I. Dr. David W. Mullins presented the oral report of the group's discussions at the final session of the Conference.

divided into three heterogeneous subgroups, each of which was to consider one of the three phases of the larger problem and to prepare a report for the entire group.

ROADBLOCKS TO LEADERSHIP

The first subgroup identified some of the roadblocks to leadership that programs preparing for leadership positions must help students to overcome if they are to develop into effective leaders. It was pointed out that these obstacles are really challenges which when effectively met help leaders to become more efficient in their jobs.

One of the first roadblocks identified by the subgroup was the lack of a proper understanding in our democracy of the leadership function. Some members felt that too many people think that exercising dynamic leadership is inconsistent with the democratic process. This belief results from failure on the part of many members of our society to understand the roles which individuals and groups with whom the leader works should play in discharging the leadership function and responsibility. Closely related to this lack of understanding on the part of followers is a lack of understanding on the part of the leader, of the complexities of our society, with its interplay of competitive groups seeking to achieve different goals and purposes which often

result in conflicts that the leader must resolve to bring about constructive relationships. The leader must learn to operate within the framework of "organized" pressure groups and the general emotional insecurity that many people feel.

Another roadblock is the lack of communication that often exists within the organization or group in which the leader functions. Sometimes the communication within the organization is good, but there is little communication between it and the larger community of which it is a part. The result in a situation of this kind is that the organization cannot and does not play the effective role that it could.

The leader's inadequate understanding of techniques and processes that should be used in operating in group situations is another reason why leadership sometimes fails. A leader must know how to identify different types of community groups or "publics." He must be able to use techniques designed to involve these groups in the total enterprise in ways through which each will contribute its share. He must know how to conduct group meetings so that the maximum progress will be attained in a given meeting. This means that he must be familiar with the physical conditions under which human beings work most effectively in group situations as well as with the techniques of group dynamics.

The leader should analyze himself in order to eliminate personal deficiencies. He must understand himself and the demands of his position. He must possess integrity, patience, vision, conviction, and almost limitless energy. He must be sufficiently adaptable to carry out the different roles a leader is called upon to play. He must be willing to spend a great deal of time in exercising the function of

leadership. Above all, he must have faith in his followers.

EXPERIENCES FOR POTENTIAL LEADERS

Subgroup 2 addressed itself to the question, What kinds of experiences should potential leaders be given in their training programs to prepare them for leadership positions? The experiences outlined by this subgroup included the following:

Potential leaders should be given training and experience in the art of working with individuals and groups so as to help them release their creative capacities.

Potential leaders should be given experiences in group dynamics. It must be emphasized that group dynamics should and can function effectively only in relation to a particular situation or set of circumstances. Group dynamics cannot operate in a vacuum.

Courses and experiences that give prospective leaders a thorough and sound philosophical and moral perspective of the field in which they will operate should be made available.

Opportunities for observation, field experiences of all kinds, and internships should be provided the trainee to help him secure the necessary firsthand knowledge and experience in effective leadership in the area of his specialty.

The prospective leader should be provided the opportunity to secure some experience in self-analysis and in the analysis of situations similar to those he will meet when he assumes a position of leadership.

It was felt by the members of the second subgroup that many of the experiences they recommended for leadership training would be particularly valuable for all students whether or not they were preparing for leadership positions.

DISCOVERING AND DEVELOPING
POTENTIAL LEADERS

The third subgroup considered at length the questions, What devices, techniques, and procedures shall we use to discover potential leaders? How can we help them to develop the capacity to operate as leaders in their respective positions?

In the consideration of these questions the subgroup emphasized that it is necessary to differentiate between real leaders and officeholders who try to exercise leadership merely by virtue of their positions.

In the search for potential leaders it was felt that we should look for people who never become so swamped in details that they have no time for planning, who do some things which are so unusual that their followers are inspired, who devote some of their time to welfare and volunteer leadership jobs, who have some hobby or interest outside their primary field of work and responsibility, who realize that leaders at times must be effective followers, who know how to delegate functions and corresponding responsibilities through the creation of a team, and who take time to assist their co-workers to develop their leadership capacities. The subgroup expressed its belief that the use of these characteristics as guides would lead to the discovery of potential leaders and to the elimination of those who merely have a desire to achieve positions in order to gain status or increased remuneration or to satisfy some other selfish motives. It was pointed out that careful screening would be necessary in our search for leaders, since those incapable of exercising effective leadership sometimes make themselves readily available for leadership positions.

TEACHERS COLLEGE LEADERSHIP
PROGRAM TODAY

Knowing that Teachers College has pioneered in leadership programs, Group I asked the faculty members present to outline some of the things that are now being done to train leaders. Through its courses, seminars, projects, and institutes the College is providing many different types of leadership programs. Much interest was expressed in those referred to by the faculty members in attendance.

A recent project undertaken by Teachers College (along with fifteen other institutions in the Middle Atlantic Region) which shows great promise for improving the training of leaders is the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA). This project, financed by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is attempting to improve the professional education of school executives. In order to accomplish this goal, it is carrying on inquiries to determine:

1. The desirable functions of administrative leadership in local communities.
2. The desirable functions of administrative leadership in intermediate, or county, districts.
3. The desirable functions of state agencies in improving educational administration.
4. What other disciplines and professions can offer to improve the professional preparation of school administrators.
5. What the role of internship in the professional education of school administrators should be.
6. How able talent may be recruited for school administration.
7. How insights that may be gained can be translated by graduate schools into improved professional pre-service

education and in-service development for school executives.

Through experiences in the field, prospective leaders at Teachers College are being given opportunities to work with diverse and often conflicting groups with which they will have to deal in the exercise of their leadership functions. Extensive field work is being provided in a variety of ways. The Guidance Laboratory gives student interns experience in counseling, testing, vocational guidance, and reading. Many students in educational administration serve as interns in outstanding school systems in the New York area. A short time ago, a new type of internship—the internship in the professorship—was established.

Surveys have proved most valuable in giving prospective leaders firsthand learning experiences in the field. Each year the Institute of Field Studies makes a number of surveys of school plants, school organization, and curricula. Students are being encouraged to develop doctoral projects that require working in practical situations that can be supervised and evaluated by their doctoral committees.

The role of research in the training of prospective leaders and the use of research in the field after one has taken a position are being stressed. The Institute of Administrative Research has been engaged in discovering means of accelerating the improvement of schools. Through the Metropolitan School Study Council and the Associated Public School Systems, it has been speeding up the adaptation of best practices in education and the determination of the implications of general research findings for the operation of individual school systems. It has been seeking (through the work of the Bronx Park Community Project in New York City) to pioneer methods by which

vigorous public participation in school affairs in large cities may be established and continued.

The Institute of Adult Education is providing potential leaders with the opportunity to engage in research designed to determine what education the maturing adult needs in a maturing community. Three major areas of community life—a congested metropolitan center representing the most divergent extremes in cultural and economic life as well as a fair cross section of the life of a large city, a suburban area typical of the regional neighborhood of a great city, a rural region in which elements of community interests and community planning are already apparent—have been selected in which to carry on this research.

The Institute of Psychological Research affords prospective leaders an opportunity to participate in the scientific study of education. Recently it has made studies of the 570 commonest English words, intelligence tests for the motor-handicapped, aptitude tests, and tabulating equipment in research projects.

The Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation furthers American education through experimentation designed to improve the public school program. Through its activities it gives many students opportunities to work with different types of public schools in experimental attempts to solve curriculum and instructional problems. It also provides a means whereby leaders on the job can secure in-service training.

The Citizenship Education Project, financed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, is developing tools for improving citizenship education in and under the control of local school systems. It is helping to train leaders to use the new tools being produced by the Project.

The Curriculum Service Center pro-

vides consultant service in the field. Through this means, students are given the opportunity to apply theory to field situations, thereby bridging the gap between theory and practice.

Courses, seminars, and real experiences in group dynamics are being offered. A seminar on group development and the administrative process is attempting to explore what leaders must know about group techniques and problems. Efforts are being made to develop know-how in using group development techniques. In connection with the newer methods of preparing leaders, special types of plant facilities have been made available, and other physical improvements will be made as the demands of the newer programs become known.

Interdivisional programs of study are proving to be highly effective in the training of potential leaders. At present Teachers College offers such programs in the fields of community service, group work, religious education, intergroup relations, communication and communication arts, cooperative extension service, education for marriage and family life, recreation, dance, and citizenship education.

In-service development of leaders in the field is not being neglected by the College. The Metropolitan School Study Council, the School Board Institute, and various institutes provide in-service opportunities for school board members, superintendents, teachers, and others.

Experience in self-government is being given the students through the Student Council. A counselor is provided by Teachers College to help students understand themselves and to aid them in the solution of personal problems. Students are kept informed about the cultural and entertainment resources of the New York area.

A history of Teachers College, many in Group I indicated, would show that the College has always been in the vanguard in the organization and administration of programs preparing for leadership positions. Teachers College, acknowledging that the psychology of learning in the area of leadership is not too well known, that the structure and function of leadership have not been finally defined, will continue to move forward among the foremost thinkers in the organization and administration of programs preparing for leadership.

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II. Recruitment, Selection and Guidance of Students Preparing for Leadership*

ALICE V. KELIHER, *Recorder*

RECRUITMENT was considered by the Alumni conference to be one of the most important major problems. The national statistics trends indicate that we are in a very serious condition with regard particularly to the recruitment of elementary school personnel. It has been predicted by Benjamin Fine of the *New York Times* that if the trend of enrollment in teachers colleges and universities concerned with the training of teachers continues at its present rate, in 1960 we may be short 800,000 teachers. This would mean a serious breakdown in American education. One of the participants in the alumni meeting indicated that in South Carolina a survey a year ago showed that only 450 of the high school graduates planned to go into teaching, but the state need is for 1200 new teachers annually. Connecticut will graduate about 400 elementary teachers in June, 1952. The need is for 1000. This seems to be the general trend of recruitment for the teaching field, and it is alarming.

Of the three subgroups discussing the threefold topic, many members indicated valid reasons for the decline in interest in teaching and in the proportions of people going into the field of education. For

one thing there are many more types of positions available, especially to young women who a generation ago had few choices other than teaching which would be approved by their family and their associates. Another problem is the major manpower shortage in the United States at this time. We literally do not have enough people to do all the work that needs to be done. One reason for this and for the lowered enrollments in colleges and teachers colleges is the reduced birth rate of the 1930's. The boys and girls of the 1930's are now coming to college, and therefore they are coming in reduced numbers.

Of deeper concern than these considerations and facts is the attitude toward teaching held by the young people of America. This too was recognized as a major problem in recruitment. Many boys and girls leaving junior high school at the ages of fourteen and fifteen have to commit themselves to a given senior high school program which will lead to college entrance, commercial work, various trades and industries, or else drop out of school—which is what a large percentage chooses. Therefore the problem of recruitment is one that goes back into childhood years. It is deeply affected by the experiences boys and girls have with education and with their teachers. There is no particular allure to teaching when as a person grows older his experi-

* Professor Kenneth Herrold served as chairman of Group II. Dr. Elizabeth H. Morris presented the oral report of the group's discussions at the final session of the Conference.

ence as a student becomes less enjoyable. Hence this question of recruitment is involved in educational practice and philosophy.

One very important area to deal with is that of educational and vocational guidance on the junior and senior high school levels. It was recognized, though, that interest in teaching may develop earlier and that it is important to find, acknowledge, and invite those personalities, even as young as fifth and sixth graders, who show talent and deep interest in dealing with people. We must remember that the college student who will be preparing for teaching ten years from now is in the elementary school today.

There was a wholesome attitude on the part of all of the subgroups when they were considering definitions of "leadership positions." It was pointed out that any member of the educational team, including the student himself, might become a leader for a particular situation. Leadership was considered as independent of position, and a fluctuating appearance of direction in an enterprise. It was recognized too that leadership as presently constituted has both positive and negative aspects. Prayerfully we wish that leadership for education in a democracy could be selected and retained on the basis of its positive contribution to the democratic ideal. One section of the group put it well when they said, "A leadership position is one which not only entails definite and immediate responsibility, but also motivates the thinking and behavior of others, drawing from all individuals the best possible contributions." This wholesome idea of sharing leadership roles was expressed in another way: "School systems should have flexibility in carrying out leadership functions so that potential leaders have an

opportunity to develop leadership qualities." In order to recognize leadership ability, it is essential that there be a more complete, satisfactory, realistic, and cooperative appraisal of personnel. Another subgroup suggested that "leadership in a general sense is a characteristic needed by all teachers." A wise caution from the group came in the statement, "Since leadership may become evident at any time, early or late, the selection of leaders must be a continuing process from early teacher training through teaching or administering in a school situation."

One section said "a leader should possess certain present qualities and future potentials: (1) have ideas and be able to put these ideas over, organize them, and spark or motivate others to carry ideas through; (2) be effective in communication; (3) be able to get others to rally to a cause, support the cause, and do things with the leader for the welfare of the group; (4) have an appreciation of others and understanding of their needs; and (5) have a sense of values and responsibility, good judgment, common sense, and, above all, personal integrity."

Still another subgroup raised the important question whether leadership is sometimes confused with benevolent tyranny. They decided that it was, and that there is still too much of such tyranny in a nation devoted to world leadership in the democratic tradition. Another question, "Are we operating too much on stereotypes of leadership?" drew an affirmative answer. Young people who are poised on the edge of the field of education assess the quality of administration in terms of whether this is the area in which they wish to spend their entire professional lives. They are attracted by cooperative leadership which is the expression of the group, and

they are eager for a broad concept of administration that is genuinely concerned with the community. The qualities of a real leader are to a great extent an expression of the time in which he lives and the problems which must be faced.

Is one of the problems of leadership that people who are in the so-called top-flight positions have to "stick their necks out"? Yes, leaders of all times in all periods of history have done this. Must the leader take risks? Any time a person walks across a busy avenue he takes the major risk of being exterminated. What kind of chance does the leader take? The risk of being named for the thing in which he believes. This is to be envied and applauded, provided that his goals and values are bound up with the problem to be solved; provided that the leader's commitment is to the general welfare of all.

How shall we cooperatively select leadership? Selection is a critical, difficult, and serious problem. We have had a goal of civil service in this country for years, but we are ready to acknowledge that we truly do not know how selection of personnel should be done. In the first place, we have to come to some common agreement on basic values. The recruitment, selection, and guidance group came back to this time and time again. What do we value? Only as we know what we value can we recruit the persons who can give deep loyalty to and provide leadership for those values. We raise the question, therefore, of how many school systems and how many state departments of education have attempted to inventory the values they would like to find exemplified not only in the spoken words but in the professional lives of the people chosen for leadership.

Further, in selection of the leader the

motivations of the individual are basic. Does the person seek leadership to dominate others, or to serve? Does he constantly re-evaluate his goals and direct his efforts in terms of what is good for the many, which means ultimate growth for himself? These motivations and commitments may best be assessed by an examination of the past activities of the individual—what his school and community interests have been and the quality of his leadership.

A very encouraging report was given by Dr. Jansen of the New York City Schools on the development of a plan for selecting leaders through internships. There were many appealing elements in the plan. It was pointed out at the same meeting that Philadelphia and other communities are attempting to recruit leadership personnel through a program of internships. The basic idea here is that instead of relying on "paper credentials," political affiliations, or influence of other kinds, the person who is interested in a leadership role is tested out in an actual field situation.

It was brought out by the group that internship in the form of student teaching has been required generally of the preservice teacher as a vital part of his preparation and screening. This value of internships should be recognized for leadership positions as well. Sabbatical leaves can be constructively used for similar purposes and should be encouraged. It was also pointed out that there are many criteria which should govern choice of leadership: human sympathy, broad, balanced perspective, creative interest and ability, initiative, concern for cooperative planning on the part of the school staff, parents, and children, as well as specialized knowledge and skill and organizational ability. Possibly the most important criterion named again and

again was flexibility. A person who is fit for leadership can adapt to the situation. This is probably the most important variable, but the situation is also important and the interaction between this leadership individual and the total environment is the determinate of leadership.

We come to the major question of what Teachers College, considered by many of its alumni to be the mother of all teachers colleges, should do in the guidance of persons in preparation for leadership. What kind of program of personal development should be planned for people who have been tapped on the shoulder and invited to prepare for leadership? Granting the supreme importance of wise selection, the personnel shortages mean that guidance and training are even more crucial. Therefore, Teachers College should critically review its methods of instruction to determine whether they are effective in developing initiative, individual judgment, and skill in interpersonal relationships. Such a program should give opportunity for participation in leadership beyond the individual classroom and help overcome the feelings of insecurity so prevalent among teachers today.

Assuming that the individual has not been limited in the past through lack of opportunity or through personal, emotional handicaps, the best *single* prediction of future behavior of an individual is what he has done in the past. There must, therefore, be wider provision for leadership activities at every educational level in which all individuals can explore

and develop their leadership potential. More extensive personal guidance and counseling services are needed to help the individual arrive at his maximum level of development.

One subgroup summarized its discussion of guidance as follows:

1. The importance of knowing the individual and his motivations, the pupil's self-understanding and the value of teacher-student relationships.

2. The provision for leadership opportunities whereby responsibility can develop and evaluation of leadership potential take place.

3. The constant re-evaluation of student goals and the separation (and re-guidance) of those in the wrong pew.

A summary of recruitment came from another working section and serves well as the closing statement of this report.

Recruitment is the broad process of spotting talent, latent though it may be, and bringing it forth to the point where continuous growth may eventually develop it into full-fledged leadership in its particular field.

Recruitment therefore would be facilitated if:

1. A broad national research program of talent identification were carried out.

2. Classroom teachers were alerted to their continuous opportunity to identify and train these potential leaders.

3. Intelligent and persistent efforts were exerted to eliminate any and all standards, practices, or barriers which tend to make any area of leadership undesirable or unattractive.

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III. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Curriculum Organization*

WILLA B. PLAYER, *Recorder*

IN this group were those directly engaged in advanced professional education—deans of instruction, a college president who served as reporter, heads of departments, professors of education and of music, art, nursing, speech, English, and home economics; those in the field receiving and working with the graduates of a program of advanced professional education—teachers of children and youth, superintendents of schools, curriculum coordinators, directors of instruction, supervisors working in the areas of elementary education, music, art, and home economics; and those representing cooperating agencies—members of the U.S. Office of Education, of state departments, of health and nursing groups, and of boards of education.

Some 30 of the 47 members of Group III had indicated, prior to the Conference session, one or more problems or problem areas of special interest for consideration by the group. These, and other problems identified early in the first session, grouped quite naturally into two large areas: (1) the essentials of leadership to which attention should be given in advanced professional education, and

(2) the nature and organization of the curriculum of advanced professional education to develop these leadership essentials. These served as focal points of the afternoon and morning sessions respectively.

In the first session, discussion developed around an exploration of the meaning of leadership. Great emphasis was placed on need for a leadership which responds to the imperatives of our time. Broad understandings, specific skills and techniques, wide experience, and healthy attitudes were recurrent in the many expressions of ideas and thought as they relate to leadership. For further clarity of discussion, the basic points of agreement were defined under the topic "Essentials of Leadership Ability" and categorized within three areas as follows:

- I. Area of Personal Development and Interpersonal Relations
 1. Understanding ourselves: our basic motivations as individuals.
 2. Understanding basic needs: for recognition, belonging, etc.
 3. Emotional maturity: ability to accept negative reactions without being disturbed; respect for contrary ideas without feeling threatened.
 4. Respect for the ideas of others,

* Professor Florence B. Stratmeyer served as chairman of Group III. Dr. Paul Limbert presented the oral report of the group's discussions at the final session of the Conference.

genuine liking for persons, humility about one's own knowledge and opinions, honesty in facing one's own limitations.

5. Recognition of varying stages of personal development and willingness to adapt accordingly.
6. Sensitivity to the attitudes and reactions of other persons, and skill in adjusting to the situation.
7. Ability to stimulate creative thought and action.
8. Desire for continuous personal and professional growth and development.

II. Area of Social Concepts and Processes

1. Understanding of basic concepts of democracy and freedom.
2. World-mindedness, seeing problems of democracy and freedom in a world setting.
3. Scientific attitude toward social problems, objectivity.
4. Understanding processes of social change and the extent to which change is possible in a particular social situation.
5. Understanding how social, economic, and geographic factors are related to forms of expression in a civilization and how they affect the development of individuals.

III. Area of Social Responsibility

1. Responsibility to interpret any field of educational endeavor in terms of service to the community.
2. Willingness to share responsibility for social action.
3. Loyalty to a process of decision-making that involves the participation of those concerned.
4. Courage in going beyond currently

accepted patterns and practices and challenging others to do so.

5. Recognition of potential leadership qualities in others and a desire to develop them.

There was general agreement that these qualities constitute the common elements (attitudes, understandings, skills) basic to an advanced program preparing persons to carry responsibility as educators in our society.

At the second session the group proceeded to inquire into the nature and organization of the curriculum of advanced professional education if the essentials of leadership are to be achieved. As the suggestions for curriculum planning developed two major emphases emerged. One stressed the significance of studies in the separate disciplines in giving breadth and depth of experience essential to leadership in our times. The other, equally concerned with breadth and depth of experience, saw the essentials of leadership ability as cutting across the usual disciplines and bodies of human knowledge. For example, understanding processes of social change may involve basic concepts and materials from such fields as communications, anthropology and biology, social psychology, to mention but a few. As these two points of view were challenged and tested in terms of the essentials of leadership it became evident that, using the usual disciplines, leadership for our times calls for seeing new relationships and giving direct attention to such areas as interpersonal relations, processes of social change, principles underlying effective leadership. Further consideration of how best to achieve this moved thinking toward basic problems of everyday living as the organizing focus of the curriculum.

Undergirding this discussion there was

a gripping desire to meet the challenges of contemporary life through well informed, world-minded citizens. Many were not sure how the curriculum of advanced professional education should be organized to meet this need, but all felt that it was a central job of professional education. All felt its urgency. There was general agreement that the curriculum of advanced professional education should be organized with reference to the problems and situations of daily living, although oriented in terms of the professional educator. To the members of Group III this meant consideration of the problems faced by the individual as a person, as a citizen, as a member of the teaching profession, and as a member of the teaching profession having some specific responsibility. It meant a thorough and scholarly attack on these problems, using fields of human knowledge as they contributed to the needed understanding. It meant that some problems or groups of problems might draw upon a number of disciplines while others might focus study largely in a comprehensive but single field of human knowledge. Time did not permit further development of this concept beyond suggesting that problems might fall in such areas as family life, international understanding, and intercommunication (through words and through various arts).

Throughout the discussion attention was repeatedly focused on the need for unified, integrating experiences which would help the student to see relationships among his courses and with other types of experience. The group decried the fragmentation, overspecialization, and lack of scholarship existing today in both undergraduate and advanced professional programs. Focus on problems

and situations of daily concern would help, but it was evident that the relational tasks of education point to other essentials in the quality and nature of curriculum experiences. Time permitted the exploration of three indicated qualities.

The first of these is the need for experiences characterized by critical thinking and analysis which lead to generalization and the application of generalizations to other areas.

The second relates to the key position and significance of guidance in a program which is definitely related to the needs and interests of students. While educational leaders face many common problems, the advanced student often has individual needs relating to these common problems as well as concerns that are unique to his personal and professional responsibilities. Guidance becomes central in a program of this nature, and the student becomes an active agent in planning his work. An advisory program which is really a counseling situation will develop "concern" among students, help them to identify needs and problems, help them to relate experiences through participation in program planning (election of work in terms of its contributions to the needs and interests of the student). Such counseling situations provide a very important opportunity for both student and teacher, or counselor, to practice democratic behavior and to grow in their understanding of human relations. Exploration of the area of guidance suggests consideration of such problems as: how to determine the competencies and needs of the graduate student, how best to provide for the "superior" student who gives promise of high level achievement and leadership, how to maintain needed flexibility of curriculum experiences, and how the

graduate school and the "field" can work together in determining curriculum needs of individuals and of groups?

The need for direct experience—for experiencing situations of everyday living of a personal, civic, and professional nature rather than talking about them—suggested the third quality of experience to be included in advanced professional education. Again and again it was emphasized that the curriculum must provide a wide variety of direct experiences with persons and things. Functional relationship between theory and actual practice embraces the classroom and the life of the college itself as a laboratory. Members of Group III recognized that the way in which a program of advanced professional education is developed and carried on is itself an educational experience and should provide a demonstration of the kind of educational leadership which it is trying to develop. This means laboratory experiences are potentially a part of all courses. It means that significant laboratory experiences include, among others, student participation in program planning, in working on curriculum committees; experience in the college classroom which demonstrates effective teaching and learning processes (including group dynamics, but without its being obtrusive); using resources of the community to supplement and enrich classroom work—encouraging types of experience (in industry, with public offices, with other cultures) which illustrate how educators are involved in a complex society where many persons must work as a team in the interests of both school and community welfare and progress; development of internships; guiding experiences in the field and on the job, including continuous in-service education

with the help of the college and a periodic reporting back to the institution to discuss current trends and problems based on direct observation and social action.

As the second and last session came to a close members of Group III were pointing up additional facets of basic issues needing consideration. Many significant phrases used in the discussions—understanding persons and their growth, skill in communication, the role of education in the present world scene—needed to be examined in detail. Many "relational" problems were cited but not explored—bases to determine and guide the *sequence* of experiences in advanced professional education, articulation of the advanced program of professional work with earlier education and with later experience and work on the job. In many ways the discussions reflected the thinking embodied in the keynote addresses, but aspects of these discussions had not been considered.

In the final moments, the group expressed a firm faith in program planning for advanced professional education geared to preserve our free way of life as it expresses itself in our traditions and our institutions. There was agreement on major values sought; on the imperatives of meeting the challenges to democracy. There were controversy and some uncertainty as to curriculum implementation for achieving the desired values. There was general recognition of the significance of the problem and of the responsibility of each member of the group, individually and with fellow educators, to continue study of the basic issues and problems in improving professional leadership through program provisions for advanced professional preparation.

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IV. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Instruction*

FRANCIS SHOEMAKER, *Recorder*

FROM time to time we hear the statement "teaching is an art" made with slightly rising inflection, implying either that as an art it is "inspired" and hence only for "born teachers" to master, or that by calling it an art we somehow dignify it by association. Among thoughtful people, however, the need for either of these implications disappears when we recognize the essential nature of artistic activity in any area of human endeavor—a process of patterning symbols to clarify our otherwise chaotic feelings about some phase of our environment. This is the process of the author, the musician, the painter, the scientist, the architect, the statesman, the original religious thinker. And it is also the process of the teacher as he selects and patterns possible experiences that will call forth from students attitudes comparable to his own toward some aspect of living.

This has always been so, of course, although it is only in the past twenty-five years that our generally broadened understanding of psychology has stimulated inquiry into the symbolic process and led many artists, including teachers and teachers of teachers, to explicit attention to their creative methods. Synthesizing much of this concern, Dewey

writes (in *Art as Experience*, p. 25), "... the *idea* of art as a conscious idea... [is] the greatest intellectual achievement in the history of humanity."

If, now, we center attention on teaching and on the conscious improvement of instruction, we are not only functioning at the top of our human powers, but doing so at a time when nothing short of our keenest perceptions and most comprehensive patterns can help us (and human freedom) to survive. It was in this spirit that Group IV explored problems relating to "Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Instruction." Repeatedly the group returned to their fundamental problem—how to develop the leadership that would help to redesign instruction at all school levels to make it effective in the lives of young people facing the realities of a geographically, socially, scientifically new world.

Group IV included thirty-three people: Teachers College staff from the Division of Instruction; classroom teachers with elementary school, secondary school, and college responsibilities; teachers of so-called "academic" subjects; teachers in teachers colleges and schools of education primarily concerned with principles of learning, school-community relations, or methods of teaching one or another subject field; and principals and supervisors in elementary and secondary

* Professor Ralph R. Fields served as chairman of Group IV. Dr. Ralph P. Gallagher presented the oral report of the group's discussions at the final session of the Conference.

schools. With so diverse a group it was essential to work as a conversational unit, exchanging ideas and shifting centers of emphasis as individuals' perceptions of relationships demanded. Through five hours of thoughtful sharing and discussion of ideas, there was a mounting awareness of the cumulative richness of experience.

Seen in perspective, the wealth of ideas shared by the group seems to fall naturally into four clear areas, each concerned with moving instruction from its current position toward the imaginable "could be" and hence "should be." The areas were: (1) provisions for developing a philosophy, a deeper self-understanding—an intrapersonal relationship in which one gets next to himself and feels at home with himself; (2) provisions for helping leaders and potential leaders to achieve and maintain wholesome intrastaff relationships; (3) provisions for educating leaders competent to develop broad "human relations" rather than "public relations" between the school and the rest of the community; (4) provisions for teaching and demonstrating how to broaden the base for student-teacher relationships. Significantly enough, these four areas have the "relationship" factor in common. Significantly, too, they seem equally applicable to Teachers College and to other teacher-education institutions. It may be appropriate, then, to discuss them without specific reference to Teachers College.

1. Provisions for a growing philosophy for teachers might well run to volumes—witness Bliss Perry's *And Gladly Teach*, Jacques Barzun's *The Teacher in America*, Marie Rasey's *This Is Teaching*. But epitomized by Group IV, it is simply, "Every teacher always a learner." Inasmuch as the maxim rarely provides the method, some definite pro-

visions need to be made for fostering the attitudes of "non-allness," as the semanticists phrase it. We never know *all* there is to know about any field, and as William James has said, "There is always the inevitable 'and' trailing behind."

One avenue may lie in explicit program provisions for inquiring into relationships among several areas of human endeavor, such as the biological studies in cooperative behavior of lower organisms, by such men as Ashley Montague, and the areas of group dynamics, sociology, anthropology, ecology, and the like. From observation of such relationships we might anticipate at least two valuable contributions to the philosophy of a teacher: one, the exhilarating awareness of design in sensing trends in our complex social evolution; and two, the feeling of confidence in one's own front-line thinking as he sorts out the trends to be reinforced, knowing as he does, that with him, key thinkers in every other field of endeavor are pushing back the frontier of the unknown on a relatively unbroken front. This may really amount to an exemplification of two new concepts in modern physics which may revolutionize our thinking as fully as evolution and relativity have done in the past century—the concepts of complementarity and simultaneity, which provide patterns for mutuality among otherwise conflicting data or opposing forces.

The leader in education who has inquired into and discovered for himself such significant relationships between his own area of specialization and several other areas might be expected to feel himself an originator—an artist, if you please—and to feel that he has a personal stake in the evolutionary processes of democratic society.

2. The provisions for achieving and

maintaining wholesome intrastaff relationships do not lend themselves to such neat maxims as "Every teacher always a learner." They do, however, grow from a working knowledge of complementarity—the ways in which every member of a school staff feels himself complementing the work of all other members in fulfilling the school's function. In preparing school administrators, therefore, emphasis should be put on *ways* of complementing the work of others and of helping colleagues to closer mutual assistance. To be sure, understanding of school finance, operating facilities, and educational philosophy is an essential part of the administrator's preparation. But his job also places him in a position to assist both new and experienced teachers to improve instructional procedures in single and related areas, and for this key responsibility he frequently has no constructive resources.

It seemed to the group, which included perceptive administrators as well as supervisors and classroom teachers, that the graduate program in administration should be redesigned to include experience in classroom instruction in each subject area. This might take the form of supervised laboratory teaching in one area, plus study and conference with informed leaders in the teaching of other areas of instruction.

The values accruing from such experience would be numerous. It would accomplish the main purpose of preparing the administrator to provide informed assistance to classroom teachers. In addition it might foster more sympathetic attitudes toward informal action-research of enthusiastic and original teachers. We might also anticipate an informed leadership in the kind of curriculum revision that develops unity of purpose and yet maintains the diversity

of disciplines that the sciences and arts contribute to the development of mature individuals.

The instruction-minded administrator still needs help from his teachers in improving instruction. Teacher-education programs should perhaps devote some attention to ways in which department members can play and work together, and share the results of their individually tried procedures. But perhaps more important, teacher-education institutions should provide for follow-up supervisory service for recent graduates, and for consultant services for school staffs. The follow-up supervisory service seemed to the group to be essential, since many beginning teachers are hesitant about requesting assistance from former instructors. Such supervision should come from a specialist in the teacher's field and, where possible, from a staff member with whom the teacher has worked.

One significant example of continuing close contact between an institution and its outgoing students was reported by Mrs. Margaret Adams, assistant professor of nursing education at Teachers College, who has developed a pattern for receiving and responding to annual reports of professional activities of all graduates in nursing education.

3. Provisions for enhancing mutual understandings between the school and the rest of the community brought the group to consideration of specific programs of teacher education in which some form of community activity is an integral part, for it was realized that "human relations" in this instance is essentially a matter of the school's participation in the life of the community.

Numerous programs and current projects were reviewed: The programs at the State Teachers College at Albany, New York, and at the University of

Wisconsin, where all local community service agencies are surveyed and used appropriately to provide laboratory experiences for prospective teachers; the comparable project at Fredonia, New York, State Teachers College, where during both junior and senior years students have numerous contacts with adolescents, both in and out of school. In addition, there were numerous suggestions that beginning teachers have access to consulting service on the nature of communities which they had not visited but in which they had job opportunities.

The extended period of internship in a school community seemed the most prevalent pattern for insuring a teacher's understanding of community life and resources. The Ford Foundation project in Arkansas was cited as an experimental example, with its provision for a fifth year of internship under specially paid supervisors. In contrast to the separation of general and professional education involved in this plan, numerous projects were reported in which general education and extended professional internships were planned to reinforce one another simultaneously.

Most completely community-centered was the program currently being initiated at Michigan State College in East Lansing. Here junior students in teams of twenty move to an outlying community for a period of eight weeks. The team selects its chairman and steering committee, surveys the community for services needed, engages in apprentice teaching and community-service activities. In addition to intimate acquaintance with community life, the plan seems to provide for conscious development of group process techniques, which may be considered essential background for later development of valuable school-community relations.

4. Discussion of provisions for improving student-teacher relations also included considerable attention to group process techniques and the use of community resources. It also focused detailed attention on the teacher's personal philosophy as central to any consideration of relationships with students. Granted command of the subject matter to be taught (and equally, an understanding of the developmental processes in learning), there is still the sense of dedication to, of self-involvement in, the job of *teaching* that the teacher must have. Risking the dangers of a true-false dichotomy, the group raised questions about the "false" self-involvement of the person finding expression for his desire to dominate others, and the "true" self-involvement of the person absorbed in the transactional situations which include subject matter, student, class, community, and teacher.

In terms of actual classroom procedures, it was suggested in the group that more teaching of teachers at the college level should exemplify methods appropriate for use in secondary school. Underlying this far-reaching suggestion, however, is the definition of "scholarship." If its definition is permitted to expand (and all cultural change is written in expanded definition of key words), then we may use it to name many kinds of experiences as well as those with books—experiences that call forth a high degree of self-involvement in any significant life situation. Group process techniques drawing students and teacher together to handle such life situations are part of a few teacher-education programs. It seemed to be the consensus of Group IV that these programs were moving in a rewarding direction.

And here we come back to our original concerns for the consciousness of the

patterning process which makes instruction an art. For the teacher of teachers, concerned with program provisions for improving instruction, must look intimately at himself to understand the nature of his self-involvement in his work, and the structure of the experiences that he provides for students. Will classes and conferences be directive, compulsive, with no opportunity for student participation? Will they provide only for student acquiescence or rejection of minor matters in individual and class conduct? Or will they provide for shared responsibility in planning, rotation of leadership, and joint evaluation?

Current in all four major areas of human relationships which Group IV considered is the insistent demand for programs of teacher education that accentuate broad patterns of relationship and opportunities to function originally within these relationships. For it was recognized that the most valuable educational leadership will come from those individuals whose administration or teaching both supports and paces the best thinking in world politics—where “politics” means the art of channeling the contributions of the sciences and arts into patterns for survival at the highest level for all men everywhere.

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V. Program Provisions for Professional Preparation: Field Activities*

JENNIE L. PINGREY, *Recorder*

TEACHERS College can increase its development of potential leaders in education through its many types of field activities by carefully considering the opportunities they offer and the concomitant problems.

At the meetings of Group V the following ten field activities were discussed.

1. *Planned visits*, short or long, to other schools and to communities.
2. *Internship programs* for teaching, supervision, administration, school building, and nursing. The members of Group V expressed the opinion that students should be used more than they are in this part of the program; observation and practice would help them in a wide variety of work, some of which is not extensively done now, such as planning for school building.
3. *Research work* done in the field.
4. *Workshops* and other group activities.
5. *Comprehensive surveys* by committees sent out from Teachers College. This should help the College in its practical contacts.
6. *Consultative service* from Teachers College made available in the field to cooperating small institutions.
7. *Planned study* in the field. Students

* Professor Willard S. Elsbree served as chairman of Group V. Dr. Mardel Ogilvie presented the oral report of the group's discussions at the final session of the Conference.

might be encouraged to identify and select a definite problem, such as a bond issue, and then helped to solve it. This might be done as part of a Master's or Doctor's program.

8. *Working with lay groups* such as parent-teacher associations, boards of education and city councils.

9. Greater use of *exchange professors*. (May the recorder suggest the practical values which might accrue from an occasional one-day exchange between a professor of education and a classroom teacher?)

10. *Promotional aid* of potential leaders by *continuing* opportunities for leadership. This might be done by the placement bureau with advice from professors and alumni who are observant and get around. They can see to it that a bright young man or woman does not get marooned in a small community in which the opportunities for leadership are limited.

These ten classifications of possible field service are not only overlapping, but they may not be complete. Where, for instance, would you classify the plaintive plea that "Teachers College keep us old crocks who have withdrawn from the more active centers of educational exchange, *en courant* with newer ideas and terminology"? Perhaps 1 or 6 or 9. Conversely it was suggested that Teachers College students and professors

need more frequent and understanding contact with the outside world during the school year. Activities 6, 7, 8, and 9 might be helpful in this respect.

No matter how the field opportunities are listed, there are certain common problems in using them for the greatest possible development of the educational leadership so greatly needed today.

First of all, who is to pay for them? Teachers College should assume the obligation rather than let it fall upon the student, lest a potential leader be lost to the field because of financial stress, but it should be able, in many cases, to get part or all of the money elsewhere. A community which has long had an educational problem it needed to solve might be convinced that by using one of the field services of Teachers College, it is actually getting a \$6,000 job at least started for \$2,000, and therefore be willing to pay the latter. Boards of education might in some cases feel that they too are responsible for the development of potential educational leaders. A foundation might be persuaded that a fellowship which would help to support a young leader in training would be advantageous to the community and to the nation. It was also suggested that the state might be interested in developing its potential leaders.

Teachers College's share of the expense might include professors' salaries, current expense money, free tuition grants for cooperating teachers as well as for students, and also reciprocal arrangements with cooperating institutions.

Perhaps planning the field activity should be considered before financing, but this is not done in practice. Either one could come first or, more probably, they would be taken up simultaneously. Teachers College can find opportunities for field activities by asking schools,

colleges, hospitals, communities, state departments of education, and alumni what needs to be done. It can give them a checklist of services it is prepared to offer. A tour or visit may unearth some problems; students may suggest others they wish to work on. Alumni may call attention to services that could be rendered. Conferences such as this may stimulate observation of needs. Suggestions should come from lay people as well as from professional educators. An increase in the number of schools working with Teachers College in field activities is highly desirable. When the opportunities are located (and they should not be restricted to the immediate environs of New York) the full planning should be done by a group including, perhaps, a member of the local city council, the president of the board of education, an able PTA representative, and the director of the placement bureau as well as the student and his professor. The greater the number of points of view, the more complete the plan is likely to be and the more likely to avoid later community conflicts. Plans should be fairly definite regarding what they are supposed to accomplish, should be in written form for the sake of clarity, but should not be contracts, since these are not sufficiently fluid. They should not require long hours of questionnaire-filling by cooperating classroom teachers.

While the plans are being made, there arises the question of matching a student to a field activity. It is very important that the right person be put on a job he can do. This careful allocation should be made by consultation among Teachers College (several departments of the College, perhaps headed by a supervisor of interns), local leaders, and student applicants. A scouting system may help locate possible educational leaders as well as

football fullbacks. Only those students who seem likely to become real educational leaders should be allowed to participate in this program. Field service may indicate whether or not they are unusually gifted. The development of good students is more important than the solution of local problems.

After these three preliminary steps have been taken—finding what needs doing, who can do it, and who will pay for it—who will see that each job is well done? In order to be sure that the field activity is achieving what it is supposed to, and doing it as well as possible, there should be observation and help by Teachers College and also by people in the local area, as long as the activity continues. The community should be educated in the process so that it will give wholehearted support.

When the activity is finished, evalu-

ation of the results is necessary. Again, it should be a two-way process, not just "Is the educational world satisfied?", but also "Did the local area get what it wanted?" Maybe it should be a three-way consideration, "What did the student, the institution, and the community each get out of this activity?"

Back of these three questions stands the main theme of the conference—the development of educational leadership. Has a potential leader been helped in his development? If Teachers College is alert for opportunities for field activities; if it sees that planning, selection, financing, supervision, and evaluation are cooperatively done and that a good leader has continuing opportunities for development, many potential leaders will become real leaders and a great deal will be accomplished for the cause of education.

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VI. Program Provisions for Advanced Professional Preparation: Research and Experimentation*

WALTER N. DUROST, *Recorder*

AS ONE reviews the events of the two days of conferences two outstanding generalizations come to mind. First, diversity of opinion is the hallmark of a free and democratic discussion. Second, for such free and democratic discussion to be creative it must include a large measure of self-criticism.

Both variety of discussion and frank and critical appraisal of what has been accomplished in educational research were notably present in the first day's discussion in Group VI. Perhaps some idea of this variety of opinion can be gained by considering the problems which were presented to the group as deserving further investigation. These problems are not listed in the order in which they were presented but rather have been organized under three main headings, as follows.

WHAT IS WRONG WITH EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OUTCOME?

Why is such a dim view taken of educational research by practitioners in the field? After fifty years of mass research in education one can find little genuine

change in content or methodology due to the outcomes of such research.

A major problem is the lack of correlation of research done and the integration of this research as the basis for new and more profound studies. Oftentimes we attack the wrong sort of problem with the wrong kinds of techniques. Are there not criteria that can be used to determine what type of problem can be attacked successfully and what kinds of techniques are really appropriate for research in our field?

Why is it that much of our research is written up as if the intent were to confuse instead of to edify? Is it not possible to write reports clearly and understandably?

How is the widening gap between technology and method in educational research and practice in the field to be closed? Who should act as the middle man between the educational research technician and the classroom teacher?

Is there not a general acceptance of the idea that the more research the better, while actually this is not true? Perhaps there is too much inadequate and ineffective research, whereas the emphasis should be on quality rather than quantity.

Is it not possible that the scientist in

* Professor Stephen M. Corey served as chairman of Group VI. Mr. James A. Hall presented the oral report of the group's discussion at the final session of the Conference.

education, as in other fields, is more concerned with the discovery of truth than he is with its dissemination? Perhaps the scientist in education should present his evidence more convincingly and actively try to "sell" his ideas.

Perhaps we have confused technique with the scientific method and what is needed is a re-examination of the techniques used and their revision within the general framework of the scientific method so as to make them more suitable for the purposes we have in mind. For example, may it be that the law of the single variable, as an aspect of experimental design, is completely impossible in the field of educational research?

An outstanding difficulty in educational research is the lack of facilities comparable to those available to the physical scientist. Foundations generally support research in the physical sciences but are reluctant to support research in education.

Following up this idea, perhaps much more attention should be given to the method of observation. Standardizing and objectifying observational techniques might yield tremendous gains in our knowledge of our own field. Particularly, we should teach teachers to observe because of their unique opportunities to watch youngsters in the classroom.

We have spoken a number of times of the mass of atomistic research which is pouring out. Perhaps what we need is more high-level, creative individual research workers who will set the pattern and provide the underlying experimental design for others to follow.

Would it not be advisable to differentiate between "service research" and research to explore the fundamentals, which might be called "new-horizons" research? There is room for both, but one

seeks in the latter the discovery of broad new principles, while the former serves primarily to meet the exigencies of the day-by-day situation.

Serious sampling problems in educational research limit the values of our findings. What appears to work in one situation does not work in another, perhaps because we ignore the law of the single variable. Possibly a partial answer would be more replicative research, in which the experimental design would be repeated over and over and the consensus of outcomes would be considered the closest approach to truth.

Perhaps the research being done in our institutions of higher education is confused with the basic "new-horizons" research. Is it not possible that even the doctoral study should be more in the nature of a learning experience than of a search for new and basic truth, unless these research studies can be integrated under the direction of some truly inspired leader? The truly inspired and gifted leader in research is a rare person. When he can be identified he should be given every encouragement. What are the characteristics of such a leader?

The time limitation imposed on most research studies by economic factors tends to make them atomistic. What we need is more studies taking not merely two or three months to collect data and analyze them, but seven or eight years or longer.

WHAT IS WRONG WITH INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH?

The average college graduate cannot state a problem and organize what he knows about it in an efficient manner.

There is a definite lack of a critical attitude toward what is presumably known in any field. More stress should be given to the fact that truth is relative

and subject to change in the light of new evidence. Why are teachers and students so resistant to the findings of research which upset their complacencies?

Research is a prestige activity and some people attempt to do research for the sake of the professional standing it gives them. This dilution in the quality of research personnel necessarily yields poor results, which in turn cause research to lose status.

May it not be true that too many individuals look upon the doctoral study as a hurdle to be cleared on the road to the degree, with no intrinsic interest in research itself and no desire or curiosity about the unknown?

WHAT IS WRONG WITH TRAINING OF RESEARCH WORKERS?

Our training seems to be producing competent technicians rather than creative scientists. Is it possible that this happens because of basic confusion on the part of the university staff as to the function of the doctoral research? Perhaps the question can be put this way: Are we trying to train teachers and administrators in the techniques of research for the sake of the kind of service research they may do later, or are we trying to develop research scientists who will specialize in "new-horizons" research? It would appear that the vast majority of the students graduating from our training institutions are interested in becoming administrators or teachers or supervisors rather than research workers, and the research they do is necessarily, therefore, an incident of their training.

Perhaps one difficulty is that the educational researcher is not quick enough to borrow techniques and procedures from other disciplines. It is not wrong to borrow; in fact borrowing is one of the most fruitful sources of new ideas and

new approaches to our problem.

Is it possible that there is a necessary hiatus between the research scientist and the teacher? May it not be true that our universities need to do more to cultivate the genuine research scientist and, by relieving him of undue teaching load and administrative responsibilities, make it possible for him to exercise his critical and creative faculties, organizing student research into larger and more integrated patterns? In this way the more or less amateur research of the doctoral candidate might be fitted into the mosaic of a larger "professional" production.

It can easily be seen from a consideration of the problems raised above that there was no dearth of things to talk about in Group VI; indeed the feeling seemed general that the time available for the discussions was much too brief to permit careful analysis. In an effort to meet this problem and at the same time to give more individuals an opportunity to express themselves, on the second day the group broke up into three smaller discussion groups. The remainder of this report is devoted to the reports of these three subgroups to the group as a whole at the end of their separate meetings. The general topics to which these subgroups directed themselves were as follows:

The basic nature of educational research and the frontier areas of such research at the present time.

The problem of identifying and training the research worker.

The problem of making educational research outcomes more effective in changing educational practice.

BASIC NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The research most needed at the present time cannot be done by currently available methods. The theoretical

framework and the necessary research techniques are missing in many instances. Perhaps the basic question to ask is, What constitutes appropriate methodology in the social sciences? While we cannot answer this question, we can point out some of the specifications.

1. We need more descriptive and less experimental research. There has been a general confusion of thought leading to the notion that experimentation and research are necessarily synonymous, whereas this is not the case.

2. Conclusions of our research should more often be expressed as probabilities rather than as absolute findings, stressing the tentative nature of the outcomes and the need for further corroboration and replication.

3. Because of the complexities of the situation, patterns and interrelationships are the important considerations, and not simple element-like findings. Our research reports and our methodology should give more attention to these interrelations and less attention to the simple "facts."

Within the frame of reference applied by these statements, the greatest frontier for research lies in the analysis of the teaching-learning process. We must learn to ask the right questions in the right way. In other words, inspired insight must be informed and reformed by appropriate methodology.

In general, the point of view presented by this subgroup met with the hearty agreement and approval of the group as a whole, and discussion took more the form of specific questions than of negative differences of opinion. Such questions were asked as, What methods of studying patterns are known? To what extent will newer statistical techniques such as factor analysis contribute to our research methodology in wider areas?

IDENTIFICATION AND TRAINING OF RESEARCH WORKERS

This group concentrated on trying to list the essential attributes of the research scientist and eventually arrived at the following demands of creative research:

1. *Ability to recognize problems.* This may be called scientific curiosity but is the general characteristic of being dissatisfied with the status of knowledge as of any given moment and the desire to extend the frontiers of such knowledge.

2. *Knowledge of the fields or ability to inform oneself about what is known, accepting or rejecting the evidence on the basis of appropriate criteria.* The research scientist almost always brings some knowledge to bear upon the problem under investigation but rarely is this sufficient for his purpose. Instead he must synthesize all that is known but do it in a creative way, rejecting that which seems to contribute little and accepting that which seems to be pertinent and fruitful.

3. *Ability to formulate a hypothesis.* All purposeful research starts with some kind of hypothesis to be tested. A clear and unambiguous statement of the hypothesis sometimes is the hardest step to take in creative research.

4. *Ability to acquire and apply techniques appropriate to the situation, borrowing these where necessary from other disciplines.* Ingenuity in applying new techniques and methodology instead of following a more or less stultified and traditional pattern is one of the hallmarks of a truly creative scientist in any field, and certainly applies in the field of educational research.

5. *Integrity in detecting and correcting errors.* Few research projects can move smoothly ahead from the statement of

the original hypothesis to the statement of conclusions without the scientist's finding it necessary to admit that in some instances he has gone up blind alleys or has made just plain mistakes in either methodology or analysis. Integrity in facing up to such mistakes and shortcomings is a hallmark of a true scientist.

6. *Ability to think creatively and critically of the outcomes of such research in terms of essential meaning.* Once a research study has been completed the scientist cannot walk away from it and leave to others the job of determining its implications for future action. He needs to think through the eventual implications of his findings and be prepared to inform others concerning them.

7. *Ability to interpret his results, to translate the outcomes of his technical and complicated investigations in terms of practical application.* The scientist oftentimes leaves to others not too well prepared the job of translating the outcomes of his study in terms of practical programs and procedures in the field of educational methods and curricula. At the very least the research scientist must stand ready to work with those who are the intermediaries between himself and the teaching profession.

Having thus defined the research scientist the group concluded that this individual is indeed a rare specimen and that relatively few doctoral candidates could be said to meet the standards established. On the other hand, we must recognize the practical exigencies of the situation and face the fact that the demand for advanced "recognized status" training makes it necessary for us to continue the kind of program we now have to a large extent. The Doctor of Education degree, with its provision for a project in the place of experimental research, drains off most of the individuals who

have no talent for genuine creative research. Where such talent exists it should be encouraged in every possible way, but even here the limitations of time and facilities inevitably make the production of a doctoral study more of a training experience than a genuine search for new truth. If a candidate is fortunate enough to work under the direction of a truly creative scientist, he may have a tremendously valuable learning experience in which his own creativity is fostered and encouraged and he is given a sense of the dignity and importance of the work he is attempting to do. This may lead to later individual contributions on his own, either in directing other student researches when he himself becomes a faculty member or in individual research activity in whatever position he may eventually fill.

This leads us to the conclusion that one of the major lacks in the present situation is more realistic opportunities for post-doctoral research and study. We need scholarship aid and the provision of facilities which will encourage research of a creative nature on the part of those qualified to do it. Such individuals should not be expected to do this work at a financial sacrifice; rather they should be provided with security and status as well as facilities to carry out their research studies.

MAKING RESEARCH REPORTS MORE EFFECTIVE

It was the conclusion of this group that present textbooks and instructional materials often impede the effective implementation of creative research. We need more adequate methods of evaluating such textbook materials in terms of what is known, with the idea that authors and publishers would be encouraged to modify their instructional ma-

terials to bring them up to date. One of the major difficulties is that we have not yet developed adequate bases for evaluating instructional material and a great deal of research is needed in this direction.

Much needs to be done to encourage more receptivity for research findings on the part of those who use the results. This involves a closer rapport between teachers and teacher-training institutions. It must not be forgotten that the teaching body provides the students for the advanced training in our universities and that, in turn, these students later will become the research consultants in their own communities, charged with the responsibility to advise, stimulate, and help others in the use of scientific method and the utilization of research findings.

On the other hand, a certain lag not only is necessary and inevitable but seems to be desirable because we need time for testing and tryout. It is highly desirable

to avoid the broad swings of educational thought sometimes stimulated by shallow and inconclusive research. In no small part, replication of research studies is an answer to this problem and new methods need to be discovered to analyze the results of such replicative research. Much of our statistical technique is based upon the assumptions of random groups and is inapplicable in most cases. We suffer severely from inaccurate and careless use of statistical assumptions, and those who are working at the frontiers of research and statistical methodology owe it to the group to give more attention to this problem.

The recorder would like the privilege of concluding this report by stating his own opinion to the effect that the healthy attitude of self-criticism and an acute awareness of shortcomings in the field of educational research give him great encouragement to believe that much progress lies ahead.

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The Place of the Teacher in Professional Education*

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A FIELD of activity is professional only if it possesses an extensive body of scholarly knowledge and technique organized about basic principles. But merely to work in a professional field does not make the activity professional. Two more things are required: the work must involve forming judgments with disciplined and self-reliant thought, and it must involve reaching conclusions that go beyond existing knowledge and the manipulation of existing techniques into areas where the judgments of the best informed men are likely to differ.

Education, likewise, is not professional merely because it is in a professional field. It becomes professional only in proportion to the help it gives students in equipping themselves to make truly professional judgments as they pursue their careers. Nonetheless, we must not expect students in school to handle the same problems that they will later learn to handle. During the student's period of study his education is professional if he is being taught to deal self-reliantly and skillfully with problems that cause his thinking to go beyond the knowledge and technique which he possesses at that time. This is as much a question of teaching as it is of method.

* This article is based upon the Annie W. Goodrich Lecture on Nursing Education, given at Teachers College, Columbia University, November 27, 1951.

The distinction between method and teaching in education is similar to the distinction between style and practice in architecture. Just as there have been prevailing architectural styles throughout the years, so there have been prevailing educational methods. Just as no style has been so good that a bad practitioner could not ruin the building he made in following it, and none has been so bad that a great practitioner could not produce something distinctive out of it, so it has been with educational methods. Whether education under any method is professional or merely technical; whether in fact it produces good results or bad, depends in large measure upon how the method is put into practice by the individual teacher. Good education requires good teaching, and no plans or methods can in themselves make teaching good. Hence, in every educational institution, regardless of its methods, it is of vital importance to examine, from time to time, what its actual teaching is in order to improve it in the light of experience. To this, professional education is no exception.

The development of professional teaching in this way demands much more than the customary procedure of trial and error. To make this clear, let me contrast two very simple instances of elementary teaching that recently took place in Western Pennsylvania, where I live. I

have chosen these instances because they are so simple that I can treat them adequately here and because they illustrate how deep the roots of good professional education go. For the development of professional stature is a continuous process from first grade through professional school and even professional practice, and each stage of that process plays a significant part in the whole.

Both of the instances of teaching which I wish to examine here consisted of teaching third-grade children to identify trees. The method in both was the prevailing present-day elementary school method: start with local interest, get active student participation, use visual or other sensory aids, and require recall. In the first instance, the pupil was given four sheets of paper on each of which there was an outline picture of a local tree and its leaf. He was asked to color each picture with crayons. He was told the name of each tree he had colored and asked to write it under the appropriate picture. The next day in class he was shown pictures without the names, and asked to recall the names. All elements of the method were there—local interest, visual aids, student participation, and recall. And the pupil soon learned accurately to identify those trees. But it was sterile knowledge; it stopped there; there was nothing more he could do with it.

In the second instance, which was confined to local coniferous trees, the pupil was given a few needle-covered twigs and asked to sort them into two groups in such a way that every twig in each group belonged to that group and could not be shifted to the other. He looked, made a few futile attempts, and became discouraged. But the teacher said, "Keep on looking. Keep on looking. You can work it out." After a while the child's eyes shone, and he divided the twigs into one

group in which the needles were in bunches and a second group in which the needles were single. He was then asked to see if he could sort the twigs in each of these groups into subgroups. With little difficulty he divided the twigs with bunched needles into those that had bunches of five, and of three, and of two; but the twigs in the single-needle group baffled him. Finally, but again only after struggle and overcoming of discouragement, he divided the single-needle twigs into those that were blunt and those that were sharp. As he went along, he was told the names of the tree families and then of the individual trees.

This child, like the other, had been taught the names of trees, using local interest, visual aids, and student participation. The content and general method were thus the same as in the first instance, and what he had learned was apparently the same. Only the practice of the teacher differed. But, as a result, the knowledge the child had acquired was not the same sort of knowledge. For it was creative, not inert. It enabled him to go on learning; and, in fact, a few days later the child, entirely on his own responsibility, had produced "My Winter-Alive Book," consisting of written descriptions with drawings of the trees near his house and also of the birds that he saw at the feeding station at his window.

If, however, we continue to look at the second instance, as the child did at the twigs, and keep asking ourselves, "Is that all that the student had learned?" it becomes clear that he had learned much more. For he had taken a first step in learning how to keep on observing in spite of discouragement until he had gotten beneath the obvious and the picturesque to the significant. He had learned, also, something of the process of gaining understanding by classification.

And in addition to having thus been started on the acquisition of the basic skills of modern science, he had learned something still more valuable—to have confidence in his capacity to think things out by himself, and to know the joy of doing so. Thus he had gained something of both the intellectual skill and the moral conviction upon which the development of self-reliant and disciplined thinking must rest. Because of his teacher, he had begun to learn how to use ordered knowledge with disciplined, self-reliant judgment to go beyond the knowledge or the manipulation of techniques which he then possessed. His learning had thus implanted in him the essential roots of professional thinking. In this age in which technological sophistication so penetrates our environment (even to our houses and our children's sports and toys) that it curtails in every direction a child's opportunity for independent learning from experience, these are peculiarly difficult and important qualities for education to develop. And the combination of character, faith, and ability upon which sound, imaginative, self-reliant thinking rests is as vital to citizenship as it is to professional stature.

Having examined the second instance, let us go back again to the first one and ask, "Have we seen all that this child learned? Did this pupil also learn something about learning?" Apparently not. But unfortunately this is not really so. From the way he was taught, he had received instruction in a process of learning that consisted of submissive acquisition of what is dictated by the teacher. In addition, he had been given a sense of helplessness in learning for himself. Without the words being spoken, the lesson had said to him, "Accept, memorize, and repeat what the teacher gives you or says"—a peculiarly harmful lesson to

teach in a time when there is less danger from men who desire to be dictators than from great masses of people who hunger and thirst after the clear, convincing voice of dictation which takes the responsibilities of self-reliant thought off their confused and burdened minds. Thus, much was taught that was not intended, and much of the unintended was harmful in its influence upon how the pupil would go on learning in the future.

Insofar as this case is typical, it illustrates how great differences within a single method can come about through differences in the practice of that method. It also illustrates how vital it is to the development of good teaching to examine all that the student learns from any unit of instruction—unplanned learning as well as planned, bad as well as good, fundamental habits, attitudes and character, as well as information and techniques. Finally, it brings out the fact that in making this examination it is particularly important for the teacher to keep on looking until he discovers the habits which the students are forming in regard to how they learn and what they accept as truth. For no matter how one teaches, if one teaches at all, the students will learn. As they learn they will inescapably develop ways of forming judgments and of learning, and these will play a major part in how they develop in the future. There is no escape, but whether these ways are good or bad, creative or imitative, independent or submissive, is within our control. From the point of view of nursing education it is particularly important to recognize not merely how deep are the roots of the qualities that characterize professional thinking, but also how fully teaching of the simpler elements that are involved in the training of nurses can be made to develop these professional qualities and how important it is to do this.

These instances, however, are taken from education of the most elementary sort. Do the same implications relate to the more advanced education? To answer this question, let me outline our experience in planning and teaching freshman history in our programs of professional education at Carnegie. Until recently the sole aim of these courses was to give our students as full and as clear understanding as possible of the development of western civilization. In its essence, the teaching had consisted of assigned reading from a text, of lectures, and then of recitations and examinations on what the author and the lecturer had said. Sometimes the recitations went further and the students discussed informally the implications of something in the lectures or texts. But usually what brought success in recitation or examinations was giving an answer which repeated as closely as possible what had been said in the text or lecture.

When we explored all that students who had been taught in this way had learned, we found that in general they had acquired, and often understood, considerable textbook knowledge of history. They had acquired a map of history, but usually it had all the superficiality of a map. In addition, they had developed habits of forming judgments about historical events which were uncritical and submissive to authority. The students felt definitely at a loss unless the teacher and the text told them "the facts" in clear, unequivocal words. If presented with conflicting statements in assigned texts they were baffled and distressed. If in learning history they were faced with the necessity of making judgments about historical events for themselves, they were confused and frustrated because they didn't know how to proceed. Their thinking was undisciplined, and they used oversimplified and metaphorical terms

without puzzling out precisely what these terms meant or eliminating their emotional implications. Unless given material they could memorize, many of them felt abused and unfairly treated. What is equally important is that the students were content with this way of thinking and considered it the right way to form historical judgments and to learn history.

During the recent reconstruction of our program of professional education, we decided to develop a history course that would provide better education in historical thinking. We worked hard to devise such a course, but when we came to put our plans into practice they failed to work out as we had expected. Finally we hit upon the device of asking our historians to explore what the qualities are that distinguish good historical thinkers from other thinkers—what it is in their own thinking that makes them proud that they are historians. It took them weeks to beat out the following answer. In addition to having a sense of the actual course of history so that they can locate events in a historical setting, good historical thinkers do these things: In the first place, they see events in the flow of time, coming out of the past and moving into the future. In the second place, they see events in the full circle of understanding and not from some specialized sector, such as the military, the political, or the economic. Hence, in forming a judgment as to an event, they take care that they see all its aspects in proportion, and they do not subordinate to the more conspicuous sectors less conspicuous yet vital ones, such as the spiritual, the artistic, and the intellectual. Finally, good historians know that evidence is not fact, and they know something of the art both of examining evidence and of interpreting it.

We then requested our historians to look back over their own education and

ask themselves when, from kindergarten through graduate school, did something happen that initiated or developed in them one of these components of good historical judgment. They came back with this answer. They had started to think as historians when in their education the teaching had brought them up against some experience that forced them to isolate and use one of the qualities which characterize good historical thinking.

As a result, in our freshman history course, the teachers, while seeking as before to give our students understanding of the main periods of the evolution of Western Civilization by the method of reading assignments, recitations, and tests, sought to make their teaching under this method such that the students themselves would explore the history of this evolution and would make their own historical judgments in such a way that they exercised, one by one, the various elements of the discipline of the historian. Early in the course as it is today, for example, the students are asked to study the essay by Tacitus on the Germans and to decide for themselves whether Tacitus had ever been in their country, supporting their conclusions with evidence. Then they beat out in class, through the slow process of wrestling with their observations and their deductions, a judgment as to what validity the evidence of Tacitus has in giving them a picture of the Germans of that time, and what corrections and precautions they must take to bring the picture of the Germans which they acquire into true focus. In this same way the course proceeds—now exploring, for example, the bias of Gibbon, and now what is historical and what religious in the Acts of the Apostles. Thus, unit by unit, students are helped to discover for themselves and

to acquire by exercise the various skills which are involved in using historical evidence in making sound judgments. Later they are similarly assisted to learn from their own experience how to see historical events in terms of growth and how to build the economic, political, religious, and other sectors of observation into a well-rounded whole.

Since the learning of students throughout a course is influenced by what they are asked to do in major examinations, we prepared examinations which would explore the extent to which students had acquired the ability to do good historical thinking. For example, in one mid-year examination we asked, "In which of the great ancient civilizations would you prefer to have practiced your profession? What opportunities would you have had because you practiced them in that civilization? What limitations would have been imposed upon you? What evidence have you got for your opinion?" A comparison of these questions, to which no direct answers had been given in any of the reading or class discussions, with more conventional freshman history examinations will indicate the kind of historical thinking that we hope our students will learn to do.

It is our observation that the understanding of the evolution of western civilization which our students gain while thus acquiring the elements of self-reliant historical thinking and learning is as good as that gained by students taught in the old way, although perhaps less elaborate. In addition, they have made a start in acquiring the elements of good historical thinking, including something of the art of observing beyond the obvious and the superficial to the significant and of giving their thinking well-ordered arrangement. Most significant of all, finding their own answers in the course

has helped them develop that combination of character, skill, faith in themselves, and sense of moral obligation which says to them, "You can think things out for yourselves, and you should; it is great fun, and it is tremendously important," thus putting them on the path to becoming wise and self-reliant thinkers in their professions and as citizens.

The experience with our history courses thus indicates that just as with elementary education, so with academic education in college, teaching can attain the essential elements of truly professional education. It also indicates that it is of great importance for it thus to nurture roots of intellectual and moral growth that will later contribute to the students' attainment of truly professional stature. This experience also confirms at the collegiate level the conclusions to which consideration of the elementary cases gave rise. But it does much more. In the first place, it suggests that subject matter, in proportion to its complexity and difficulty, tends to divert the attention of the teacher from the less conspicuous aspects of teaching. Hence, as teaching becomes more advanced it becomes more important to examine what habits of judgment forming and learning the teaching of the subject matter is causing students to form. It is not clear to me what is the best way to teach any subject, or if there is any *one* best way. But I am sure that whatever the way of teaching may be, it is of great importance to examine samples of actual teaching and make sure that one has found out everything, moral and intellectual, which the students are assimilating as a result of the way they are being taught, and to ponder the significance of this in relation to how they will learn and think later in life.

In the second place, our experience suggests that the more complex and difficult the subject, the harder it is to find out what are the critical elements of good thinking. In our present society, learning from experience and learning from independent study are made difficult by the complexity of our public problems and by the extent to which the fundamental lessons of experience are concealed by its dramatic aspects. Such learning is also complicated by the influence of public opinion and emotion, and by the bias and even deliberate distortion of writers, not to mention the learners' own unconscious preconceptions and prejudices. As a result, as the difficulty which our history students experienced in forming sound, historical judgments in rather simple cases indicates, self-reliant social and political thinking is today a skilled art, hard to acquire and hard to teach well. To teach it well involves careful exploration by the teacher of the learning skills which constitute the "discipline" of the field of his course, and then devising specific means for enabling students at that level so to acquire these skills that they can use them effectively.

Since so much of the skill of a professional nurse consists in observing people and interpreting subtle evidence, I wonder if these conclusions, relating as they do to the art of going beyond the obvious to the significant in the interpretation of evidence, do not have an especial significance in nursing education. I wonder if at the heart of the problem of how to make nursing education professional there does not lie a question similar to that which we asked our historians: "What are the qualities that distinguish the observing, interpreting and decision-making of the professional nurse from those of other nurses?"

But even when nursing educators have explored these qualities they should not expect their students to acquire them "all at once and nothing first." They should design instruction so as to give their students a gradually expanding experience in the development of the power to think with disciplined, individualized, professional style in their field.

Finally, the difficulty that students in our history courses displayed in altering the learning habits acquired from previous courses and in getting free from their reliance on dictated "truth" gives convincing evidence of how important it is that the education in learning which all teaching gives be good from the start. For hard as good learning habits are to acquire, bad ones are harder to reform.

To explore the application of these conclusions to professional education, let me turn to the teaching of law. For many years, in almost all law schools, the case method has prevailed. Recently, however, a few outstanding schools have examined their present teaching under this method to see whether it was still helping students to acquire the understanding and the power of self-reliant thought for which it was designed. This examination made gratifyingly clear that in these schools at least it was fulfilling this purpose; but when they went on and asked, "What are we teaching that we didn't intend?" and "What are we omitting?" they found bad as well as good results.

In order to discover what one is omitting, one has to know what one ought to be teaching. Hence, these teachers, as did our historians, puzzled out what qualities distinguish the broad and creative lawyers from the petty, imitative ones; and also which among these qualities experience tends to promote, and which on the contrary are either hard to

develop by experience or hard to maintain against the ceaseless impact of adverse experience and hence especially important to teach in law school. In doing this, these teachers came to the conclusion that one of the important qualities of a good lawyer, and one that is not easily developed by experience alone, is sufficient mastery of the arts of legal draftsmanship and negotiation to use his understanding of the law to prevent the problems that cause litigation. Another, and perhaps even more important quality of good lawyers is the habit of taking into consideration all aspects of their problems, not just the narrow legal ones.

With a clear sense of what should be taught in mind, the teachers looked again at the case method which they had found otherwise satisfactory and discovered that it was not only failing to develop the art of communication through draftsmanship and negotiation, but was teaching students to ask in each problem the dangerously narrow question, "How can I do my legal stuff?" and thus promoting that self-assured narrowness of attitude that so often makes the judgment of the expert inadequate. Hence, these law teachers are changing their practice and, while still using the same basic case method, are introducing into it cases which give students experience in communication and negotiation, and other cases which cause them to go beyond narrow legal bounds and ask and answer in relation to their clients and to society the truly professional question, "What—all things, not just legal things considered—should be done?"

These recent developments in the practice of the case method in law indicate how important it is, if education on the professional as well as on lower levels is to be truly professional, to improve teaching by examining everything that

the student is learning as a result of what he does in his courses. They also suggest a new and important angle from which educational practice should be studied. Valuable though it is, to examine single instances of teaching is not enough. It is important also to search for the unplanned learning that results from the aggregation of such instances throughout an entire course. For the aggregate, or whole, is far different from a mere sum of the parts. It was in the aggregate primarily, for instance, that the case method taught students to be narrowly legal in outlook. In our courses in economics, psychology, or physical science, to cite further examples, we have found that unless special precautions are taken, as our students become skilled in using the basic tools of the field to reach sound, analytical judgments, they tend more and more to assume that if they have made a sound economic, psychological, or physical analysis they have reached a sound, total conclusion, and to become increasingly blind to the fact that the answer which their analysis has given them is a partial one. They tend, in addition, to develop the attitude that, if they pay attention to objective information and quantitative data, they are realistic; and to fail to realize that what they thus call realism is based upon neglect of the great artistic and spiritual realities which make life significant. Their "realism" thus becomes a half-realism; and because of its very extensiveness such half-realism is a peculiarly pernicious form of half-truth. In nursing, where there is so much that is objective and yet where a merely objective relationship to the patient is so coldly devastating, it is particularly important that objective half-realism be corrected by the sensitive wisdom of the heart.

This experience at the professional

level not only indicates the importance of examining the full effects on the student of the teaching of a course as a whole, and in doing so of being aware of what is the full spectrum of professional qualities of mind and heart that the teaching should nurture, but indicates that a fourth quality should be added to those which I gave at the beginning of this discussion as constituting the essence of professional thinking. If thinking is to be professional, it not only must use knowledge organized about fundamental principles, be both disciplined and self-reliant, and extend beyond the direct reach of existing knowledge or the exact manipulation of existing techniques, but it must relate to the right question. For thinking to be professional, it must seek to answer the broad question, "What, all things considered, subjective as well as objective—things pertaining to the wisdom of the heart as well as to the wisdom of the mind, things which the thinker should do as well as things which he should get others to do—what, all these things considered, should be done?" This is as important a characteristic of professional thinking as the other three. Again, I wonder if this point does not have a special significance in nursing education because of the central position of the nurse in seeing day in and day out the whole problem of her patient, and because as the technical requirements of nursing increase, it puts the professional nurse under new temptations to become the nurse technician who asks the narrow question, "How can I do my stuff?"

To examine all that is being taught in a course as a whole and how this affects the process of learning has value from another angle. A course, like a fruit tree, is a growing thing. Unless it is frequently pruned, it is likely to develop suckers which divert the sap from reaching and

maturing the fruit which the students should get. Teaching, especially if creative, tends to sprout branches of additional information or technique, now here, now there. While each may be useful in itself, together they become suckers and exert a strangulating force upon the fruit by leaving inadequate time for the slow process of good learning. Since there is rarely time in any course for the teacher to teach all that he desires to impart, even a good teacher, as new material crowds in upon his courses, is likely to cut corners by substituting his own activity for what should be the students' activity. Regardless of the excellence of the method used or the amount of ground covered, insofar as the teacher substitutes the easy task of himself performing the process of learning, for the difficult one of getting the students to do the independent thinking and to feel and endure the stress by which alone they can develop the skills and habits of self-reliant thought, he is substituting empty motions of teaching for the process of good teaching itself.

I know of no way to eliminate either excessive content growth or empty teaching motions except by using the same process of full examination of all that the teacher is teaching and all that the students are learning of which I have been speaking. In this connection, however, it is important to keep what the teacher is doing completely distinct from what the students are doing, and on this account meticulously to avoid using the first person plural pronoun in describing what a course is like. For if, in describing what goes on in a course, the teacher says "we," the actual learning process the student goes through in the course and indeed the extent to which the teacher is substituting his activity for that of his students, is concealed under

the seductive impression of undifferentiated cooperation.

Finally, to look at all that a course or curriculum as a whole causes a student to learn, serves to make clear that there is always time to teach by the slow steps involved in self-reliant, professional learning. For while each step is slow, the students' education as a whole is rapid. In the first place, the acquisition at one level of fundamental knowledge and good learning habits greatly augments both the speed and the quality of learning at a higher level. In the second place, if the student acquires in college the basis in knowledge, skill, and character for effective independent learning thereafter, the knowledge at his command will not be limited to what he then knows. Instead, he will possess potential knowledge far more extensive than any effort to cover as much ground as possible by swifter cramming methods could give him. This makes possible the pruning out of much of the customary mass of particularized knowledge that causes teachers to say that there is so much to teach that there is only time to teach by the swift, superficial method of memorization.

The cases I have cited, ranging as they do from primary to professional education, taken together indicate how universal are the fundamental problems and principles of education. At every educational level, method is important in teaching, but it is important only in the way that a skeleton is important in a living organism. The flesh which gives this skeleton power is the practice of the teacher. Hence, in any field and with many methods, it is possible so to teach as to provide the students with learning experiences that have the qualities which make education professional. In order that teaching may have these qualities,

however, it is of critical importance in planning a course or in seeking to improve its teaching, to examine the actual teaching practice and what it is doing to the student. For only by knowing what the actual teaching will be can we plan a course well and only by knowing all that the actual teaching in an existing course is causing the students to learn can we make it better. Since many of the most important things that students learn in professional courses as well as in others are far from apparent, in examining teaching practice in a professional school one must "keep on looking" past the learning that is planned to that which is not planned, past what is taught to what one has failed to teach and, above all, past the factual and the technical to the ways of thought, the attitudes, the desires, and the character which the students form.

Teaching is not a science but an art, and regardless of method, technique, or measurements, can be good only if the teacher has insight and inspiration and the capacity for ruthless critical examination of his work that true art requires of the artist. In practicing this art, the teacher must never forget that the value of his teaching does not consist in what it enables the student to do at the end of his course, but in how it will influence

his growth and learning in the future. With professional education this means that the essential task of the teacher is to help the student acquire root wisdom and root habits of mind, character, and spirit which will enable him to grow in disciplined, self-reliant, and socially responsible power, both intellectual and moral.

It is my belief that nursing is at a turning point in its development. Its requirements are changing so fast that its future will lie in the hands of the students who are being taught now. Whether or not they will make nursing professional will depend largely upon whether or not nursing education is professional, and this will depend upon its teachers. If nursing educators recognize that at every level and in every subject the moral power, the sense of values, the habits of mind and heart of every student are being developed, and nothing else that is being taught is as important as this; if nursing educators teach so that students, in gaining fundamental knowledge of the mind and heart, learn to use it with disciplined intelligence and modest self-reliance to answer truly professional questions that comprehend the whole problem of the patient, there is no question in my mind as to the future of professional nursing.

Departmental Notes

Division I

Foundations of Education

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

THREE of the six books chosen to be published next spring in the *N. E. A. Journal* as outstanding educational books in the field of "Educational Theory and Practice" for the year 1950, were written by members of the department. They are *The American Tradition in Religion and Education* by Professor R. Freeman Butts; *Education and Morals* by Professor John L. Childs; and *The Improvement of Practical Intelligence* by Professor R. Bruce Raup.

PROFESSOR Robert King Hall taught comparative education during the Michaelmas term at Oxford University in England.

Division II

Administration and Guidance

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

THE College was represented by Professor Will French at the Life Adjustment Education meeting in Washington, D. C., on October 8, 9, and 10.

PROFESSORS Paul Essert and Ralph Spence held a one-day planning conference on December 17 with representatives from five communities in New York and Virginia. These representatives were superintendents of schools who are interested in planning the summer 1952 work conference for teams of professional and lay representatives.

GUIDANCE

THE board of directors of the American Heart Association has appointed Professor Kenneth F. Herrold to a special committee on education.

THE Texas State Department of Health has invited Professor Herrold to participate in the annual week-long conference for department officers and public health nursing supervisors at Austin, January 20-23. Its purpose is to facilitate cooperation between public and private health agencies at the administrative level and to improve the personnel administration policies and practices within local health units and within the larger program of public health administration in the State of Texas.

Division III

Instruction

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

THE department recently published an illustrated brochure describing its program leading to the Master of Arts degree for graduates of liberal arts colleges. This program is designed to prepare persons without professional experience to be teachers in nursery schools, kindergartens, and first grades, or educational workers in child care centers. Major aspects of the program, such as individual counseling by professors, classroom and workshop experience at the college, and contact with children under supervision in field situations, are featured in the brochure. The program is under the supervision of Professors Emma D. Sheehy and Kenneth D. Wann.

THE final session of the Institute on the 4 R's was held at the College on December 5. Professor Marcella R. Lawler was chairman. Professors Jean Betzner, Roma Gans, Anne S. McKillop, Howard Fehr, Florence B. Stratemeyer, Margaret Lindsey, and Phil Lange and Drs. Eloise B. Cason and Edward S. Fulcomer served as consultants. These consultants, who worked with the eight teams of teachers who attended the Institute, are scheduled to continue their work with the teams in their respective schools on two or three more occasions in the next few months.

ON November 30, Professor L. Thomas Hopkins addressed two sections at meetings of the Ohio Education Association. His first talk, delivered to the art section in Columbus, was titled, "The Place of the Arts in Modern Education." The second speech, delivered in Canton to music educators, was titled "Growth."

PROFESSOR Hopkins went to the Tower Hill School in Wilmington, Delaware on December 6, to address the Pre-School Association on the subject "How Children Learn."

SOCIAL SCIENCES

SENIOR author of the new college textbook, *World Economic Geography*, is Professor George T. Renner. This book, which was published recently by T. Y. Crowell of New York, is a radical departure from the general pattern of its predecessors and is expected to modify drastically the usual teaching approach to the subject. Junior co-authors are Professor Loyal Durand, Jr., of the University of Tennessee and Professors C. Langdon White and Weldon B. Gibson of Stanford University.

A study of the professional life and contributions to geographic education of Richard Elwood Dodge, one-time professor of geography at the College, has just been completed by Mr. Paul F. Griffin.

A fluorescent light table for cartographic reproduction and copying has been acquired and installed by the geography section of the department.

ON November 22, 23, and 24, Professor Renner attended the annual meetings of the National Council of Geography Teachers at Pittsburgh, Pa.

MATHEMATICS

Emerging Practices in the Teaching of Secondary School Mathematics is the title of the 22nd Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Professor John R. Clark is the editor.

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

AT the recent annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, Professor Lennox Gray was elected president. His post in the Council prior to that time was as first vice-president.

"SOME American Opinions on Study in France" is the title of an article by Professor Daniel Girard which appears in the January issue of the *News Bulletin of the Institute of International Education*. The article is a condensed treatment of some of the most significant findings Professor Girard made while in France during the 1950-51 academic year.

PROFESSOR Aileen Kitchin gave an address at the Pingry School in Elizabeth, N. J., on the topic "The New Grammar Instruction." Teachers from public and private schools throughout the Elizabeth area attended the meeting.

AT a meeting of the Foreign Language Teachers' Association of Newark on December 5, Professor Girard spoke on "New Techniques and Methods in the Teaching of Foreign Languages."

PROGRAM coordinator of *Horizons*, the new television series which features faculty members and students of Columbia University, is Professor Louis Forsdale. It is presented at 6 P. M. Sundays, over Channel 7, in New York. The programs emphasize the future—the future of teaching, the future of civil liberties, and so on—and is produced as a public service by the American Broadcasting Company in cooperation with the Columbia University Communication Materials Center.

The series is under the supervision of Erik Barnouw, editor of the Center, and John W. Pacey, ABC Public Affairs Director. As program coordinator, Professor Forsdale works in advance of the program with students and speakers on such matters as content, time checking, and preparation of visual materials.

MUSIC EDUCATION

PROFESSOR Raymond Burrows has been appointed associate national chairman of the Audio-Visual Committee for the Music Educators National Conference, in charge of the national sub-committee on utilization of audio-visual equipment in music education. His duties will commence with the preparation of a meeting at a March session of the Music Educators National Conference in Philadelphia.

HOME ECONOMICS

PROFESSOR Laura W. Drummond has been elected chairman of the colleges and universities department of the American Home Economics Association. She is also the chairman of the program of work committee for that department.

PROFESSOR Drummond served on the program of the thirty-sixth annual professional conference held by the State Education Department at Lake Placid from October 7 to 10. The discussion centered around the topics "Needs of Teachers in Fostering Mental Health Through Home Economics"

and "Suggestions for Meeting Needs of Teachers."

NEWLY elected director of the New York State Restaurant Association is Professor Neva Henrietta Radell.

BUSINESS AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

THE American Chapter of the International Society for Business Education has recently re-elected Professor Hamden L. Forkner for a two-year term as president of the society.

PROFESSOR Forkner recently completed a report for the Bergen County Board for Vocational Education on the organization, administration, curriculum, and guidance program for the new vocational school that is to open in Bergen County in September, 1952.

DR. John L. Rowe has been appointed associate editor for the 1953 *Business Education Yearbook*, a joint publication of the National Business Teachers Association and the Eastern Business Teachers Association.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

PROFESSOR Clifford Lee Brownell is chairman of a joint committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation to prepare materials for a special issue of *The Bulletin*. The published materials will deal with problems in health education, physical education, and recreation of mutual concern to secondary-school principals and to personnel employed in one or more of the three related fields.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

A survey will be conducted by Dr. P. C. Potts, part-time instructor in the depart-

ment and educational consultant of the American Foundation for the Blind, to determine the adequacy of provisions for the education and training of blind Negroes.

Division IV Nursing Education

A grant of \$22,000 was received for the first year of a five-year cooperative research project in junior-college education for nursing.

PROFESSOR Bernice E. Anderson acted as a consultant on legislation for the American Nurses Association to the West Virginia State Nurses Association on October 4. She is chairman of the Association's standing committee on legislation.

ON October 24, Professor Anderson spoke at the annual meeting of New Jersey State League of Nursing Education in Asbury Park. Her topic was "Educational Opportunities for New Jersey Nurses."

Citizenship Education Project

PROJECT staff members have published several articles in educational journals. They are as follows:

"They May Know English, But Are They Ready to Teach It?," Professor George Murphy, December, 1951, *The Journal of Teacher Education*;

"Citizenship Education in the English Program," Mr. David Hume, December, 1951, *English Journal*;

"School Administrators and Citizenship Education," Professor Edward S. Evenden, October, 1951, *The Teachers College Journal*, published by Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.

"High School Students Evaluate Adults," Dr. Frederic L. Ayer and Mr. Bernard R. Corman, December, 1951, *Social Education*;

"The Citizenship Education Project," Dr. Allen Felix and Mr. Willis Griffin, December, 1951, *Phi Delta Kappan*.

THE Project is now making available to schools, civic groups, industrial organizations, and others the Hours on Freedom which they prepared for use in the armed forces. These materials may be purchased from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College.

Office of Field Relations and Placement*

The following recent appointments are reported by the Office of Field Relations and Placement:

Abalan, Theresa M., teacher of music, Sulphur Springs School, Tampa, Fla.

Abrams, John, Jr. (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics and social studies, Jane Addams Junior High School, Seattle, Wash.

Aldrich, Eleonora L. (A.M. 1951), director of public health nursing, Mobile County Board of Health, Mobile, Ala.

Anderson, John M. (A.M. 1943), chairman, department of music, Panola County Junior College, Carthage, Tex.

Armstrong, Helen, executive director of central registration, YWCA, Detroit, Mich.

Baasch, Lucile G. (A.M. 1951), teacher of science, Public School No. 2, Ridgefield, N. J.

Baird, Josiah L. M. (A.M. 1950), instructor in ceramics and art education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Baisley, Robert W. (A.M. 1950), instructor in piano, Neighborhood Music School, New Haven, Conn.

Barker, Oscar R. E. (A.M. 1950), assistant professor of mathematics, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Barry, William J., occupational therapist, Augusta State Hospital, Augusta, Me.

Bartley, Catharine Dunkle (A.M. 1947), nursery school teacher, Madison Avenue Presbyterian Church Day School, New York, N. Y.

Biglow, Frank H. (A.M. 1950), teacher of art, Public Schools, Willoughby, O.

Bird, Minnette (B.S. 1948), assistant director of nursing education, Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

*Any student who is taking or has taken twelve points of work at Teachers College may register with the Office of Field Relations and Placement. Any student in the allied schools of Columbia University who has carried twelve points of work is also eligible for registration.

Boraas, Harold (A.M. 1925), professor of education, Nebraska State Teachers College, Peru, Nebr.

Borges, Frederic W. (A.M. 1948), instructor in mathematics, New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N. J.

Bosscher, Gertrude (M.S. 1950), therapeutic dietitian, Rochester General Hospital, Rochester, N. Y.

Bowlby, Marguerite E. (A.M. 1948), instructor in remedial reading, Public Schools, Lindenhurst, N. Y.

Bradas, James K. (A.M. 1950), instructor in music, Copiague Union School, Copiague, N. Y.

Breda, Egidio S., instructor in industrial art, Public Schools, Cranford, N. J.

Brody, Jack N., teacher of fifth grade, Public Schools, Pearl River, N. Y.

Brown, Henry Adams (A.M. 1951), teacher of sixth and seventh grades, Shubert School, Baldwin, N. Y.

Burrington, Horace C. (A.M. 1949), teacher of chemistry and physics, Haverling High School, Bath, N. Y.

Cavallaro, Alfonso (A.M. 1941), instructor in music, Queens College of the City of New York, Flushing, N. Y.

Cesare, Anthony (A.M. 1950), teaching principal, William Nitki School, Mount Clemens, Mich.

Cochran, Mary, instructor in nutrition and home management, Bennett Junior College, Millbrook, N. Y.

Collins, Elizabeth N., instructor in foods, Villa Maria College, Erie, Pa.

Colson, Chester E. (A.M. 1950), teacher of art, Devotion School, Brookline, Mass.

Curran, Phoebe Elinor (B.S. 1949), teacher of four-year-olds, Agnes Russell Center, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Dacher, Abraham, teacher of fifth grade, Public School No. 177, New York, N. Y.

Dahlin, Walter O. (A.M. 1949), chairman, division of fine arts, Adams State College, Alamosa, Colo.

Daley, William P. (A.M. 1951), instructor in art, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Danforth, David Wallace, head, department of science, Mancos Consolidated School District No. 6, Mancos, Colo.

Davenport, Leonard S. (A.M. 1930), instructor in science, Roselyn Schools, District No. 3, North Hempstead, N. Y.

Davis, Marian V., instructor in art, Meredith College, Raleigh, N. C.

Davis, Renee Adele, teacher of four-year-olds, Hansel and Gretel Nursery School, New York, N. Y.

Davis, Ruth Eleanor (A.M. 1951), instructor in foods and clothing, University of Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wis.

Davison, Margaret Jean (A.M. 1937), assistant teacher, Riverside Church Nursery School, New York, N. Y.

Donaldson, Mary Katherine, teacher of fifth and sixth grades, Primary School, Shirley Center, Mass.

Dorce, Eugenie R. (A.M. 1945), director of home economics department, Barber-Scotia College, Concord, N. C.

Dunbar, Henry E., Jr. (A.M. 1917), teacher of science and swimming coach, Lake Worth High School, Lake Worth, Fla.

Dunne, Lina Rubright (A.M. 1945), teacher of mathematics, Mt. Hebron Junior High School, Montclair, N. J.

Dunston, Anne, supervisor of vocal music, Cleves-No. Bend District, Cleves, Ohio.

Epstein, Charlotte B. (A.M. 1951), teacher of second grade, Woodrow Wilson School, Elizabeth, N. J.

Esher, Frederick N., master in science and mathematics, The Gow School, South Wales, N. Y.

Fallon, John V., teacher of sixth grade, Austin Elementary School, Corpus Christi, Tex.

Farned, V. E., Jr. (A.M. 1951), teaching principal, Third Air Force Dependents School, Oxford, England.

Feinzeig, Sorelle (A.M. 1951), teacher of art, Public Schools, Matawan, N. J.

Fisher, John J. (Ed.D. 1949), professor of biology and dean of men, State Teachers College, Lowell, Mass.

Fleming, Alice F. (A.M. 1951), kindergarten teacher, Public School No. 6, Yonkers, N. Y.

Freeman, Sophie (A.M. 1942), teacher of remedial reading, Public Schools, Arlington, Va.

Fryer, Gideon W., assistant professor of social research, University of Tennessee, School of Social Work, Nashville, Tenn.

Garfield, William E., teacher of social studies,

Henry C. Conrad High School, Woodcrest, Wilmington, Del.

Gilliam, Dorothy Pillot, school nurse, Board of Education, Glastonbury, Conn.

Gilroy, Mary Patricia (A.M. 1949), teacher of speech correction, Public Schools, District No. 16, Elmont, N. Y.

Glenday, David (A.M. 1951), teacher of social studies, High School, Malverne, N. Y.

Goss, Robert C. (A.M. 1951), teacher of social studies and guidance counselor, Middleburg Central School, Middleburg, N. Y.

Graves, Elizabeth E., teacher of sixth grade, Public Schools, Pearl River, N. Y.

Griffin, Annabelle Wig (A.M. 1950), teacher of vocal music, Swanson Junior High School, Arlington, Va.

Griffin, Henry, teacher of third grade, Public Schools, Lewes, Del.

Grote, Elsie C. (A.M. 1941), instructor in arts and crafts, State Teachers College, Farmington, Me.

Gunderson, Ralph E. (A.M. 1951), teacher of eighth grade, Arlington High School, Arlington, Wash.

Hartsell, O. M. (Ed.D. 1951), instructor in music, Montana State University, Missoula, Mont.

Hatgil, Paul (A.M. 1951), instructor in ceramics, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

Hawkins, Robert Vernon (Ed.D. 1950), associate professor of music, Western State College of Colorado, Gunnison, Colo.

Helfant, Kenneth G. (Ph.D. 1951), research assistant and part-time instructor in child development, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Holcombe, Lee, instructor in social studies, Westlake School, Los Angeles, Calif.

Houston, Elizabeth W. (A.M. 1934), assistant professor of clothing and textiles, Beaver College, Jenkintown, Pa.

Iams, Victor L. (A.M. 1944), supervisor of music, Public Schools, Keene, N. H.

Iaricci, Italo S. (A.M. 1951), band director, Pearl River Junior College, Poplarville, Miss.

Jackowski, Arthur, teacher of sixth grade, Campbell School, South Rover, N. J.

Jackowski, Edward, teacher of special opportunity class, Columbus School No. 8, Garfield, N. J.

Jeffery, Zella (A.M. 1932), metropolitan coordinator, Y.W.C.A., Detroit, Mich.

Johnson, Harold Leroy (A.M. 1951), teacher of eighth grade, McKinley School, Redwood City, Calif.

Johnson, Jean J. (A.M. 1949), supervisor of elementary art, Dade County Board of Public Instruction, Miami, Fla.

Joice, Mariana, acting pediatric supervisor, Lenox Hill Hospital, New York, N. Y.

Jordalen, Marion, consultant in music, Sacramento County, Sacramento, Calif.

Kahn, Kenneth, teacher of English and social studies, West Babylon School, Babylon, N. Y.

Kessler, Max (A.M. 1950), teacher of mathematics and science, Junior High School No. 171, New York, N. Y.

Knox, Josephine H. (A.M. 1951), school nurse, Horace C. Hurlbutt Junior School, Westton, Conn.

Koski, Edward A. (A.M. 1951), teacher of music, Public Schools, West Hartford, Conn.

Koury, Rose Eleanor (A.M. 1948), general elementary helping teacher, Public Schools, Arlington, Va.

Krevitsky, Nathan (A.M. 1947), associate professor of art, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Krust, Marie, instructor in music, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Kuhn, Marylou (A.M. 1948), instructor in art, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla.

Kukic, Anna (A.M. 1951), instructor in foods and nutrition, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Linn, Nora H. (A.M. 1941), head teacher of five-year-olds, Lexington Child Care Center, New York, N. Y.

Lioy, Fedela, teacher of elementary school subjects, Collegiate School for Boys, New York, N. Y.

Loomer, Gifford C. (A.M. 1947), assistant professor of art, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Ill.

Maricle, Dorothy L. (A.M. 1939), kindergarten teacher, Maple Street School, Easthampton, Mass.

Marrapese, Albert A. (A.M. 1950), district consultant in art, Third Supervisory District, Rensselaer County, N. Y.

McDermott, Edward Joseph (A.M. 1951), teacher of seventh grade, Fairhaven High Schools Addition, Fairhaven, Mass.

McMenamin, James H., Jr. (Ed.D. 1950), assistant professor of art, Sacramento College, Sacramento, Calif.

Mewha, Priscilla Alden (A.M. 1942), teacher of first grade, Bethel Township Public Schools, Boothwyn, Pa.

Miles, Lillian M., teacher of mathematics, The Masters School, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.

Montague, Patsy (A.M. 1946), educational supervisor, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N. C.

Mortimer, Burton H. (A.M. 1947), teacher of mathematics and science, Central High School, Valley Stream, N. Y.

Mould, Lillian (A.M. 1944), clinical psychologist interne, Central New Jersey Mental Hygiene Clinic, Red Bank, N. J.

Moulton, Verna (A.M. 1944), assistant professor of textiles and art, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.

Mylchreest, Ann (A.M. 1951), head teacher of four-year-olds, The Home School, White Plains, N. Y.

Norian, Alice K. (A.M. 1947), teacher of fourth grade, Stewart Elementary School, Garden City, N. Y.

Olsen, Edward G. (Ed.D. 1937), educational director, National Conference of Christians and Jews, Chicago, Ill.

Orshan, Fred (A.M. 1951), teacher of fifth grade, West Babylon Elementary School, West Babylon, N. Y.

Outlaw, Simon S. (A.M. 1950), teacher of arts and crafts, Public School No. 99, New York, N. Y.

Pettenati, Waldo V. (A.M. 1950), teacher of social studies, Hinsdale Central School, Hinsdale, N. Y.

Pirscenok, Anna (A.M. 1951), director of nursing, Montgomery Hospital, Norristown, Pa.

Pollack, Stanley M. (A.M. 1947), instructor in art, Maryland State Teachers College, Towson, Md.

Popkin, Roslyn (A.M. 1951), nursery school director, Valencia Nursery School, New Orleans, La.

Ragland, Ernest H. (A.M. 1949), superintendent of schools, District No. 411, Twin Falls, Idaho.

Reiger, Edith Eleanor (B.S. 1948), public health nurse, Dutchess County Department of Public Health, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Reppeteaux, John D., instructor in art, Senior High School, Port Washington, N. Y.

Richardson, Thomas Henry (Ed. D. 1951), educational advisor, 7503rd Air Support Wing of Third Air Force, Brize Norton, Oxfordshire, England.

Ridenour, Virginia Smith (A.M. 1949), supervisor of vocal music, City Schools, Harrisburg, Ill.

Robbins, John V. (A.M. 1948), teacher of music, Central Valley School District, Opportunity, Wash.

Robertson, John W. (A.M. 1946), assistant professor of art, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Rousseau, Marie, assistant state supervisor of home economics, Arizona State Department of Education, Phoenix, Ariz.

Scarangelo, Anthony (A.M. 1950), teacher of social studies and English, Smithtown High School, Smithtown, N. Y.

Schjang, Myrtle A. C. (A.M. 1948), head teacher of six-year-olds, Lexington Houses Children's Center, New York, N. Y.

Schoepfle, Irene L., assistant professor of music, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, Calif.

Schultz, Kenneth (A.M. 1950), instructor in music, Shenandoah Conservatory, Dayton, Va.

Sciarretta, Patrick J. (A.M. 1951), teacher of fourth grade, Niagara Street School, Niagara Falls, N. Y.

Seals, Omar (A.M. 1950), teaching principal, Hop Bottom School, Hop Bottom, Pa.

Segedin, Paul J. (A.M. 1950), band director and counselor, Livingston High School, Livingston, Calif.

Serog, Hanna Lore (A.M. 1950), kindergarten teacher, Virginia Day Nursery, New York, N. Y.

Sica, Marie L. (A.M. 1950), teacher of art and arithmetic, Grove School, Madison, Conn.

Smathers, Elaine J. (A.M. 1951), instructor in music, Public Schools, Jamestown, N. Y.

Spector, Irwin L. (A.M. 1943), instructor in physics, Phoenix College, Phoenix, Ariz.

Spencer, Edith L. (A.M. 1927), occupational instructor in weaving and other crafts, Pilgrim State Hospital, West Brentwood, N. Y.

Stanley, Beatrice P. (A.M. 1951), assistant director of nursing service, Strong Memorial Hospital, Rochester, N. Y.

Starkweather, Dorothy A. (A.M. 1933), assistant professor of home economics, Cedar Crest College, Allentown, Pa.

Stephens, Harold William (A.M. 1944), head of department of mathematics, Millburn High School, Millburn, N. J.

Stiles, Mary E. (A.M. 1950), kindergarten supervisor, State Teachers College, Potsdam, N. Y.

Streepy, Mary Eckert (A.M. 1950), instructor in music, Bedford Junior High School, Westport, Conn.

Tate, Barbara L. (A.M. 1951), instructor in nursing, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Teitsworth, Dorothy N. (B.S. 1947), kindergarten teacher, Parker School, Trenton, N. J.

Thompson, Mary A. (A.M. 1923), director, International Student Center, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Tietjen, Charles H. (Ed.D. 1949), superintendent of schools, Public Schools, Malvern, Ark.

Tompa, Robert J., teacher of social studies, High School, Manasquan, N. J.

Townsend, Dorothy I. (A.M. 1950), first grade critic teacher, State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pa.

Turner, Elmer (A.M. 1949), administrative assistant, Bell Aircraft Corporation, Niagara Falls, N. Y.

Wade, Patricia, (A.M. 1948), instructor in art, State Teachers College, Oneonta, N. Y.

Wainio, Anne Hilda (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics, Marlborough Central School, Marlborough, N. Y.

Walker, Shirley A. (A.M. 1947), instructor in clothing and textiles, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.

Weber, Harold Edward, teacher and supervisor of fine arts, Central Islip Union School, Central Islip, N. Y.

Welding, Harriet A. (A.M. 1951), teacher of art, Friends School, Wilmington, Del.

Westerberg, Eleanor E. (A.M. 1946), membership program director, Y.W.C.A., Fort Wayne, Ind.

White, Howard O., supervisor of music, Public Schools, Ramona, Kan.

Wilkow, Murray (A.M. 1940), teacher of industrial arts, Public School No. 115, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Williams, Paul E. (A.M. 1938), professor of elementary education, Danbury State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn.

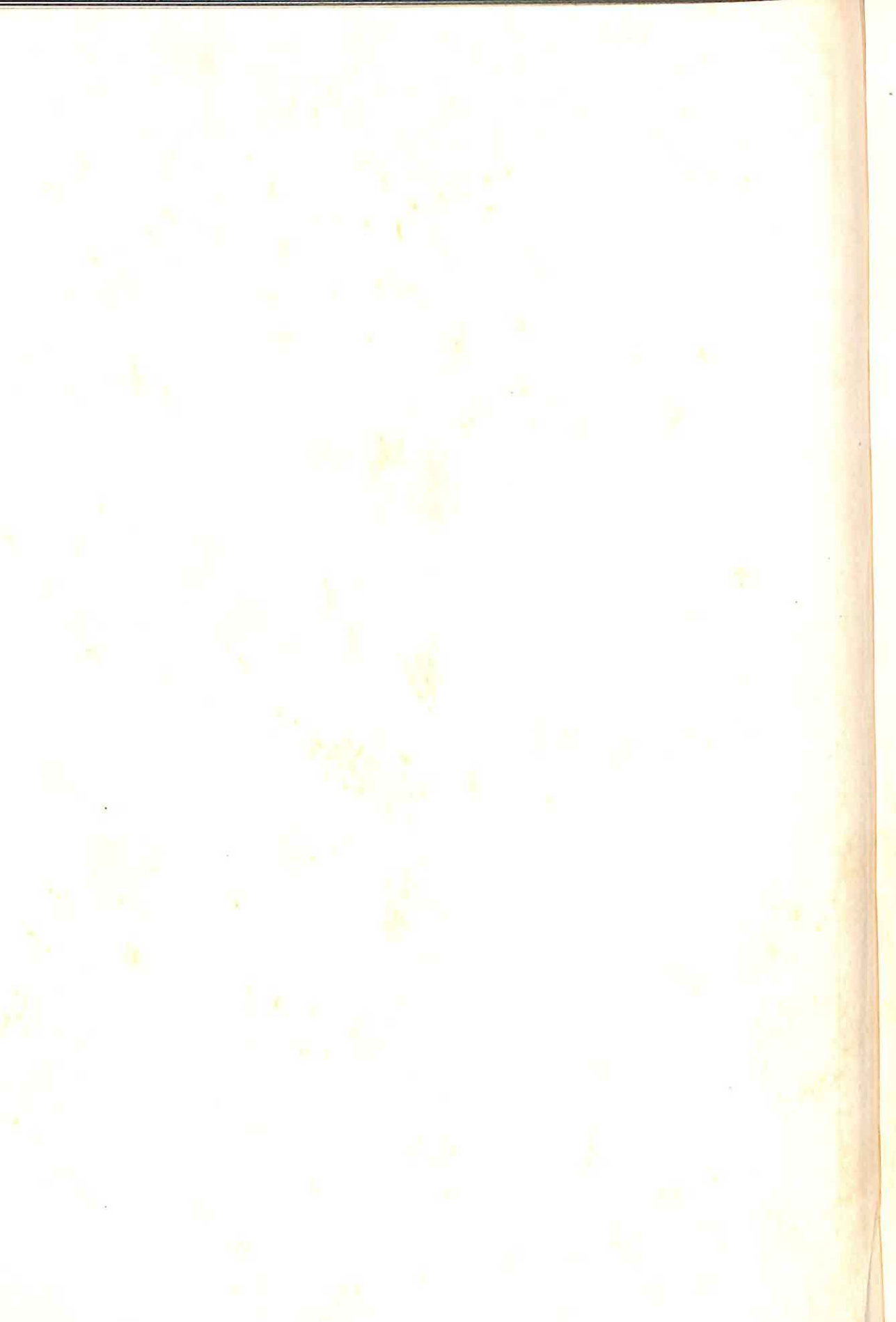
Wilson, Robert J. (A.M. 1941), education specialist, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Wilt, R. W. (A.M. 1947), principal, Linwood School, North Brunswick, N. J.

Wilton, Eva (A.M. 1950), teacher of mentally retarded children, Association for Help of Retarded Children, Inc., New York, N. Y.

Young, Janet, teacher of mathematics, Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Ill.

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WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

William Heard Kilpatrick: Teacher and Democratic Statesman

JOHN L. CHILDS

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

ON Saturday evening, November 17, more than a thousand educational and civic leaders gathered at a dinner in the grand ballroom of the Hotel Commodore in New York to celebrate the eightieth birthday of Dr. William H. Kilpatrick. Representatives of many different fields of public activity joined in this tribute to one of the great teachers of our period—a man who, during his twenty-five years of service at Teachers College, had communicated a dynamic conception of democratic education to the more than thirty-five thousand teachers enrolled in his classes. A celebration of the life and work of Dr. Kilpatrick necessarily becomes more than a purely personal affair, for his name is indissolubly associated with a movement in education variously known as the “project method,” the “activity curriculum,” the “new education,” and “progressive edu-

cation.” As John Dewey has recently stated, “. . . in the best sense of the words, progressive education and the work of Dr. Kilpatrick are virtually synonymous.”

This number of THE RECORD contains all of the talks given at the birthday celebration, including the response by Dr. Kilpatrick. It is significant that official representatives of the major professional educational organizations—The World Organization of the Teaching Profession, The National Education Association, The American Association of School Administrators, The American Federation of Teachers, and the American Education Fellowship—shared in the program. All of these leaders stressed the importance of the contribution he has made to the causes which they are seeking to advance. It is now clear that the democratic interpretation of education which

Dr. Kilpatrick has developed is so fundamental in character that no single educational organization can pretend to be the unique embodiment of it.

The philosophy which is characteristic of Dr. Kilpatrick has a functional theory of mind. It believes that thought properly completes itself in action. It is "experimental" in that it believes the first commandment in intellectual affairs is to learn "to think in terms of action and in terms of *those* acts whose consequences will expand, revise, test, your ideas and theories."

Dr. Kilpatrick has lived the philosophy which he has taught. As the papers read at the eightieth birthday celebration make manifest, his work has many dimensions and has been attended by solid results in the schools of the United States and of many other countries. He early perceived that a child is a person, and that in the ethic of democracy a person is a being who is to be treated as an end and never merely as a means. Accepting this basic moral principle, he has worked to create a school which would have no good other than the growth of actual children, and which would view all else as means for the promotion of this growth. He recognized that fundamental to all of the various kinds of human growth is growth of mind, and by growth of mind he has meant growth in capacity for reflective thought. This concern for a school which would develop resourceful human beings possessed of the capacity for reflective conduct, led him to the project method and to the functional curriculum in which children would have opportunity to engage in "wholehearted purposeful activities."

But as Dr. Dewey recently wrote, "... progressive education in the sense in which it properly applies to the work of Dr. Kilpatrick implies direction; and

direction implies foresight and planning." It does not primarily denote "methods on the part of the teacher which are marked chiefly by following the immediate and spontaneous activities of children in the schoolroom." On the contrary, "progressive education involves foresight and planning, which in turn require some principles of organization. This does not mean that a fixed goal must be set up, but that there must be a point of view from which to select materials and arrange them in some kind of order."

One thing the eightieth birthday celebration makes abundantly clear is that the educational ideas of Dr. Kilpatrick have had a profound influence in changing the purposes and the program of the school. As so many of the speakers emphasized, children in our country, and in many other lands, are today having a happier, a more purposeful, and a more productive experience in school because of his emphasis on education in and through experience in meaningful life situations. Undoubtedly many problems remain to be solved—particularly in the programs of the secondary schools—but the value of the experience curriculum as a principle of orientation has been demonstrated in actual school practice. For this we owe much to the work of Dr. Kilpatrick and the many teachers and parents who have cooperated with him in the magnificent effort to make the process of schooling a process of rich and satisfying growth through actual living.

Today, the "new" education is subject to much criticism. We live in a time of trouble and insecurity, and there is a tendency on the part of some to be critical of all that marks a departure from traditional ideas and practices. We should not be indifferent to these criti-

cisms, for some of them undoubtedly reflect values which have not as yet been adequately provided for in the functional programs of our schools. On the other hand, we should not exaggerate the extent of these criticisms or ignore the ulterior purposes which lead certain predatory groups to exploit these educational attacks. All of those in direct touch with the planning of the Kilpatrick birthday dinner were deeply impressed by the quiet but solid support his educational purposes enjoy among both teachers and parents at the present time.

Many now understand that the new education is not simply a novel pedagogical device, but that it does involve a new educational outlook which, in turn, is grounded in a democratic life philosophy. Unquestionably this democratic life philosophy is in conflict with authoritarian imposition of doctrines through processes of emotional conditioning, whether this be undertaken by secular or by ecclesiastical authorities. But it was encouraging to note the many religious leaders who were eager to associate themselves with this celebration of Dr. Kilpatrick's birthday and the pattern of education to which he has devoted his life. Many of these religious leaders share the conviction that religion, as well as education, must undergo change if it is to be brought into harmony with the values of the scientific mode of thought and the democratic way of life. They would endorse the view of the late Dr. George A. Coe that "selection through discriminating judgment; forethought and planning; fitting means to ends; carrying a planned activity through; judging the product and one's self by means of it, and thus making ready for further self-guided action" are the essence of the project method. And "purposing, in this full sense and range, is

nothing less than the process—and it alone contains the generative force—whereby one comes to one's self as a person. Used collectively, it is the democratic process."

Although the heart of Dr. Kilpatrick's life interest has been education, he has all along perceived that education is not carried on in a social vacuum, and that human growth must be defined in terms of the life of the community in which the child is to live. It is this social conception that has undergirded his emphasis on education in and for democracy, for democracy, as he conceives it, is an attempt to organize a community in which respect for each human personality will be the governing principle and moral end. His concern with the welfare and development of the young has therefore caused him to take an active interest in those aspects of the life of the community which have direct bearing on the life of the young. In other words, his commitment to democratic values in education progressively involved Dr. Kilpatrick in various organized public movements to secure a more democratic community.

The fact that he was an educator concerned with the welfare of all of our children gave increased authority to what he had to say about the harmful effects of certain of our established social, economic, racial, and religious practices. He saw the disastrous physical and spiritual effects of unemployment in the families of school children, and he was moved to advocate a planning, full-employment economy. Observing the harmful consequences in the lives of the young of our historic patterns of segregation and discrimination, he became an active worker with minority racial and religious groups which were seeking to make equality of opportunity and treatment an operating

American practice not a mere phrase in the Declaration of Independence. One of the most moving speeches given at the eightieth birthday celebration was that of Lester Granger, executive director of the National Urban League. He spoke of the wise and courageous cooperation that various groups interested in the welfare of the colored people had had from Dr. Kilpatrick.

Recognizing that a free education involves freedom to inquire, to criticize, and to publish, Dr. Kilpatrick has throughout his life been opposed to economic, patriotic, and religious pressure groups which have sought to make our schools "safe" by abridging these elemental procedures of a free society. For many years he was a member of the Committee on Academic Freedom of the American Civil Liberties Union. Although often in cooperation with private, progressive schools, Dr. Kilpatrick has been a steadfast supporter of the free, tax-supported common school. He considers it one of the major institutions of American democracy, and he has been in the thick of the struggle to get adequate financial support for public education, and to provide public school teachers with the security required to carry on their intellectual functions.

Dr. Kilpatrick has long believed in the principle of the separation of church and state. He was one of the founders of the Institute for Church and State. He has consistently opposed all efforts of religious organizations to use the schools and the coercive powers of government to advance sectarian interests. He shares the faith of many liberal thinkers that spiritual religion will prosper only in a community which sup-

ports untrammelled inquiry, and he has confidence that man's religious sentiments are so deeply grounded that they can adjust to whatever knowledge science develops. He has given much thought and time to those religious movements which are seeking to integrate ideal objects of allegiance with the disinterested pursuit of truth.

One of the interesting features of the birthday dinner was the large number of officers and members of the organized labor movement in attendance. They count Dr. Kilpatrick a mature friend of the workers' movement, they have benefited from his advice in their programs of workers' education, and they realize that the quality of the education provided in our public schools is a matter of crucial importance for them. David Dubinsky, president of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, and a member of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor, spoke of the high regard the labor movement has for the work of Dr. Kilpatrick and "all that his teaching had done to bridge the gap between men of learning and men of labor."

Speaking as an immigrant and for the immigrants "who are Americans by choice and not by birth," he declared that Dr. Kilpatrick had done "much to extend free public education—to make it available and meaningful for working people and immigrants—and that "these working people and immigrants" were happy to be able to join with others in honoring him for what he had done. I am confident that no greeting could have meant more to Dr. Kilpatrick than this sincere tribute from one of America's most progressive labor leaders.

Greetings to William Heard Kilpatrick

... from the Public School System of the City of New York

C. FREDERICK PERTSCH

ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT, NEW YORK CITY SCHOOLS

SUPERINTENDENT William Jansen has asked me to convey to you, sir, and to your friends here assembled, his sincere regrets that he is unable to pay his compliments to you in person this evening. As a matter of fact, Mrs. Jansen and he are the guests of honor at a joint birthday party which is being given this very evening.

The hundreds of New York City teachers who have attended your classes through the years hail you, sir, as a master teacher. In so doing, they are merely adding to the acclaim of thousands of fellow teachers the country over for your outstanding contributions to the program of teacher education. Who but a master teacher could have posed so many questions of general interest, suggested so many apposite references, stimulated such intense individual study and group thinking, and provoked so many rewarding insights and outlooks with such seeming artlessness? In retrospect, it seems to us, your onetime students, that the approach and procedures used were essentially an adaptation of the project method for the graduate level.

Your plea for greater emphasis, in the education of children, upon the development of character—with particular ref-

erence to the growth of a sense of justice, intellectual honesty, and a belief in the virtues of the democratic process—has markedly influenced our program of education in New York City. Furthermore, your thesis that critical thinking should and must be developed in children as a means of self- and group-protection against unprincipled propaganda has been recognized as a basic objective of education. To a degree, somewhat limited as yet but growing in scope, the schools of New York City are attempting to develop the ideals and attitudes of good citizenship through the participation of school children in community projects. In short, the program of elementary education, in particular, as carried forward in New York City, seems to be moving in the direction of a more interesting, dynamic, and meaningful program for children. The greater the progress made, the more shall we all—children, parents and teachers—be indebted to you, sir.

In closing, permit me to voice the appreciation of the teachers of New York City for your great generosity in contributing your time, energy, and counsel, without stint, to countless groups and associations of teachers who have sought your advice and suggestions.

... from the American Federation of Teachers

REBECCA C. SIMONSON

PRESIDENT, NEW YORK TEACHERS GUILD, LOCAL 2,
AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

DR. Kilpatrick, I should like to acknowledge what you have meant to the American Federation of Teachers and to express the appreciation of its members for the rich experience they have shared with you.

Henry Linville, one of the founders of our Federation, was a close associate of Dr. Kilpatrick for many years. He recognized early the relation of Dr. Kilpatrick's work to the thinking of John Dewey, another member of our Federation. This was at a time when only private schools could indulge in experimental education. Dr. Kilpatrick worked with our public school teachers in conferences, in committees, and in courses.

When the new program was finally introduced into our public schools some of us, at least, were prepared to make a beginning.

We remember one meeting where the teachers sat in rapt attention while Dr. Kilpatrick gave a brilliant lesson on his program for education. At the end of his presentation, he was met by a barrage of questions: How can we follow your advice in such large classes? How can we work without material? How can we carry on with the static furniture of the traditional classroom? How can we work under supervisors who know less about the program than we do?

We cannot recall all the answers to the many questions, but we do remember how in his quiet, slow manner, but

with tremendous emphasis, Dr. Kilpatrick said, "Strike at every vulnerable spot. Hit hard wherever and whenever you can." It was good advice for educators then and it is good advice today for liberals who see issues in black and white, and who insist on all or nothing.

We are grateful to Dr. Kilpatrick because he not only wrote on the need for democratic administration in our schools, but drew up standards and specifications for personnel in administration. When the choice of such personnel became an issue in our city, he joined with lay and professional groups for reform and good administration.

When officials of New York City turned their backs on the needs of our public schools, Dr. Kilpatrick entered the political arena and fought through press releases and advertisements against corruption and for good government.

We remember a budget hearing at which the teachers were appealing to former Mayor O'Dwyer for salaries commensurate with their preparation and training. The Mayor, in a burst of temper, pointing to the members of the Board of Estimate, said, "If it depended upon degrees, most of us would not be here today." If teachers were to follow Dr. Kilpatrick's example of entering seriously into politics, they would not be subject to the contempt of politicians who make a virtue of their ignorance.

And finally, we want to express our appreciation of Dr. Kilpatrick's support of our Expansion Fund; for it is recognition of the fact that the teachers can meet the challenge of satisfying their economic and professional needs only

through collective strength and thinking.

Dr. Kilpatrick, on this eightieth birthday, the American Federation of Teachers greets you and hopes that many more happy birthdays will mark your flexible, optimistic, and inspirational life.

... from the National Education Association

ROBERT A. SKAIFE

FIELD SECRETARY, NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR THE DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY
THROUGH EDUCATION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

It is both a privilege and a pleasure to represent the National Education Association in honoring Dr. William Heard Kilpatrick on the occasion of his eightieth birthday.

Dr. Kilpatrick's work at Teachers College attracted the attention of teachers everywhere. In this sense he belongs to the teachers of the United States. They have recognized him as a master teacher. They have praised his writings, quoted his teachings, and profited by the ideals of his philosophy of education. Those who had the good fortune to study with him have gone forth with a workable philosophy of their own, one which has enabled them to face a troubled world courageously.

I asked a prominent graduate of Teachers College this question: "In general, what do you believe is Dr. Kilpatrick's greatest contribution to public education?" This was his answer: "If I had to select one thing, I would say that he was a chief factor in raising the status of a teacher from that of a factory hand to that of a creative professional worker."

It would be a time-consuming task, one not fitting for this occasion, to re-

view the many books and articles which Dr. Kilpatrick has written to illustrate the things he has done to improve teaching. Others have described many of the accomplishments of Dr. Kilpatrick. I am therefore going to concentrate briefly on his services to education as a member of the Committee on Academic Freedom of the National Education Association. Dr. Kilpatrick served on this Committee from 1935 to 1944 and acted as chairman during the latter year. In 1944 the Committee on Academic Freedom was merged with the Tenure Committee to become the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom.

Among the accomplishments of this Committee on Academic Freedom, of which he was a vital part, was a survey of public opinion which led to the formulation of a statement of principles. An outgrowth of these principles was Dr. Kilpatrick's excellent article in the April, 1942, issue of the *NEA Journal* entitled "Academic Freedom and What It Has Meant to Me." "Academic freedom," said Dr. Kilpatrick, "means for the teacher, freedom to study and teach according to the best insight one can

get, and for the student, freedom to study and discuss and conclude each for himself as best he can."

A glance through any of the books he has written reveals his scholarly, scientific approach to learning, the very heart of academic freedom. In *Education for a Changing Civilization* he wrote: "It seems clear that the tendency to test thought before accepting it is slowly but surely permeating the general intellectual attitude of our time. In this principle man has found a new faith." In teaching he has opposed indoctrination in favor of questioning "received positions" and rethinking "these positions to something more defensible."

At the request of the Committee on Academic Freedom, Dr. Kilpatrick prepared for the *NEA Journal* (May, 1943) an article entitled "The Moral Obligation of Teachers in the War-Peace Situation." His concluding statement reaffirmed faith in academic freedom: he urged teachers, acting through their professional organizations, to "defend both their right to teach and the students' right to learn. . . ."

Nowhere has Dr. Kilpatrick stressed academic freedom from the point of view of the selfish interest of the teacher. He has urged it as a protection of the individual and the public. Translated into everyday living, this concept, so vigorously attacked today, is public education's answer to those who would destroy the American dream by narrowing the passageways to knowledge and truth. Instead, Dr. Kilpatrick has been in the forefront of those who seek to preserve for the American child an open gateway which reads, "Here you are free to learn."

As we face more intensified attacks on public education today—attacks which imperil our educational structure in America—perhaps there is no more fitting way to honor Dr. William Heard Kilpatrick than to pledge anew our support for the principles he has labored so diligently to establish in public education.

Dr. Kilpatrick, the National Education Association is proud to join other educational groups in honoring you today, on this your eightieth birthday.

... *from the Public Schools of the United States*

WILLARD E. GOSLIN

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, AND PAST
PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

HISTORY, in the main, records the American Revolution as a struggle by which we gained our independence from Great Britain. It was more. It was also a struggle within America to make certain that we should have a chance on these shores to keep alive the roots of freedom—the roots which had been plucked from the bitter experiences of Europe and cultivated in the clear atmosphere of the frontier by Roger Williams and his kind.

The struggle for the dignity and rights of each citizen marched toward fulfillment on the frozen feet of Valley Forge. It was advanced by the rifle fire of the Summer Soldiers. It was kept alive by the lashing pen of Tom Paine. It was anchored by the solid character of Washington. It was given depth and scope and clarity by the understandings and convictions of Jefferson.

Man being what he is, freedom from empire is inevitable. Man being what he is, freedom for each man is more elusive.

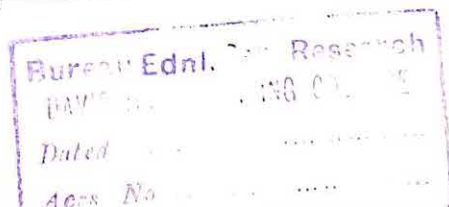
Out of the whole struggle emerged the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights. Out of the decision that each man shall count—that the common man shall be in charge of his own social, economic, and political destiny—came public education.

I believe that the creation in this nation of a free school system for the full development of the innate capacity and personality of each citizen will finally

be recorded as the most far-reaching experiment of our period of civilization. But I wish to emphasize that it is an experiment in the process of development. It has not been tried before. It is being tried now. It *was* and *is* a radical idea—but an American one. When Horace Mann began to pick up the strands of education in Massachusetts and knit them into a program of public education, the cry of "Socialism!" rang out through the land.

William Heard Kilpatrick, more than any other teacher in this century, has helped the American school system live up to the ideals of our early struggle for freedom for every man. He has helped make respect for the worth of each individual a reality in tens of thousands of classrooms across America. William Heard Kilpatrick is of the company of Roger Williams, who sowed the seeds of freedom; of Jefferson, who laid out the blueprint for a free people; of Mann, who built the foundation of a free school system; of Lincoln, who saved freedom for all men; of Dewey, who has pointed the way.

Dr. Kilpatrick, from the hundreds and thousands of teachers, principals, consultants, and superintendents in the public school system of the United States who have had direct contacts with you as a teacher and as a leader in education, I bring a depth of affection to you as a person who is dear to them, and a



dedication so to teach that America's children may better understand the "good life" and be better able to live it because they have been to school. From the hundreds of thousands of teachers in the public schools of this nation who have seen their work become more meaningful as they have learned more and more about how to live and work with children, as your teachings have spread across the land, I bring you appreciation born of greater achievement and added self-respect. From the millions of American

homes where mothers and fathers and children have found better living relationships because of your teachings, I bring a silent tribute of well-being. From a nation better able to solve its problems of human relationships because of your work, I bring thanks for a new hope. From the depths of my own commitment to public education—from my own attempts to be free—I bring you my deepest respect.

The influence of William Heard Kilpatrick is now at its beginning.

. . . from the Teachers of the World

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL

PRESIDENT OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

IT is a professional honor, as well as a personal privilege, to bring to Dr. Kilpatrick tonight the best wishes for many happy returns of the day from the teachers of the world. Those of the free world, as I have met them from time to time in various international gatherings, invariably ask how he is, and express their gratitude to him. No doubt there are former students of his, friends and admirers, who cannot send their greetings or know anything of these happy proceedings. They languish in concentration camps, or cower in fear behind the Iron Curtain. Just as I do, they think of Dr. Kilpatrick as a great teacher; a world figure working for peace, goodwill, and betterment of conditions of life everywhere; a national leader of modern education in the United States; a distinguished professor of Teachers College, Columbia University, who brought to focus new knowledge of psychology,

education, and sociology and stressed the implications of their interrelationships in the classroom, the school, and the community. When I was a student of his, every hour was rewarding. Never a dull moment. The teacher, always prepared, *well* prepared, obviously having done many hours of work for that particular hour. My notes on his class in History of Education are still clear, well-organized, meaningful. A great teacher!

But there is a bar sinister on his record. There is a skeleton in his closet. There is a record not usually mentioned. Since this speech before its delivery had to be submitted to Mr. Waldman of the Anti-Defamation League, I had to be careful. I refer to Dr. Kilpatrick, School Administrator. His first educational job was as principal of the Blakely, Georgia, Public School. Then after a year of college study he was principal of the Anderson Street Public School in Savannah,

Georgia, from 1892 to 1895. After a six-year interlude as professor of mathematics in Mercer University, from 1897 to 1903, he returned to his first love—administration—as president of Mercer. Then he served a year as principal of the Columbus, Georgia, High School. Then he taught at Teachers College as lecturer and professor of History of Education, but in addition he engaged in administration as head of the Appointments Committee from 1912 to 1916. Then eighteen years of teaching, to be followed in 1934 by the chairmanship of the Division of Foundations of Education, a post which, if held in another

institution, would have carried the title of dean. He was an excellent administrator. His budgets added up. His decisions were prompt and firm, his policies wise.

In fact, I think the reason he was such a good teacher is that he was such a good administrator. How else could he have organized and operated his huge classes so satisfactorily?

So tonight I aim to put the record straight; and it is a pleasure to convey birthday greetings to one who has rendered maximum service not only as a great teacher, but as an excellent administrator as well.

Influence of William Heard Kilpatrick

. . . on Human Relations

LESTER B. GRANGER

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF THE NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE

As I have sat listening to the previous speakers and awaiting my own turn on this evening's program, I have suffered from a progressive loss of self-confidence. When I entered this room I knew what I wanted to say and how I intended to say it. For the past hour, however, I have been sitting between two notable representatives of higher education and have been exposed to the rapid cross fire of their professional conversation. As a result, I am somewhat confused, almost as much as if I had been listening to a conversation between some of my more erudite colleagues in social work. Who am I, on a program of this sort, to compete for the attention of these guests against the distinguished gentlemen who are my dais neighbors?

However, the chairman's reference to the broad coverage of the Kilpatrick influence has served to restore my self-confidence by reminding me that there are present at least several hundred guests like myself, who are neither professionally expert in education nor masters of its terminology, but who wish to pay their tribute to Dr. Kilpatrick. These guests are concerned not merely with Kilpatrick, the educator, but also with William Heard Kilpatrick, the constant,

persuasive, and persistent exponent of the fact of our human togetherness.

On this point I can speak with a pride and an authority that arise out of my association with our distinguished guest during the past dozen years. As the chief executive officer for the Urban League movement, I have been closely associated with Dr. Kilpatrick for the past ten years in his capacity as President of the Urban League of Greater New York. I have the most grateful recollection of the readiness with which he accepted a really onerous responsibility, and also of the valuable leadership which he gave to our movement here in New York City throughout the whole of his ten years as president. The Urban League's job of representing the economic interests and social welfare of our urban Negro population, and of building trust, understanding, and mutual respect between white and Negro Americans has been aptly described by one qualified observer as "the toughest job in social work." It is a tough job. It is so tough that we have considerable difficulty in recruiting first-class lay leadership for our board and committee assignments. But we had no difficulty in recruiting Dr. Kilpatrick. He accepted promptly and cheerfully. He

performed heroically, and is still functioning, even after his ten years of devoted service, as the honorary president of the organization.

Many are the times when I have sat in meetings and have been inspired by the deep wisdom, the unvarying kindness, and the clear objectivity with which Dr. Kilpatrick attacked knotty problems involving the three pitfalls of agency operation—policy, program, and personalities. We have had a number of controversial discussions, sourly tinged with disagreement. Sometimes controversy has threatened to promote disastrous opinion splits. I have repeatedly watched Dr. Kilpatrick sit quietly and patiently through a discussion, while storms of argument whirled over his head, and then by a brief, pungent remark resolve controversy into agreement and impatience into understanding.

I have witnessed similar devoted action on the board of the Bureau of Intercultural Education during my service under the Kilpatrick leadership. And for such services—a tremendous contribution to the whole field of human relations—I am personally and deeply grateful at the same time that I express the gratitude of hundreds of colleagues.

And always I have been impressed by the fact that this kind of leadership has come from a man born and reared in the state of Georgia, a man exposed from his birth to "the Southern outlook" and who must, therefore, have experienced considerable readjustment within himself in order to develop the kind of personal philosophy and interracial influence that he manifests today. When our guest speaks to us shortly his voice will reveal a lingering trace of his Georgia accent. I find to my own surprise that I do not resent that accent at all. In fact, I have come to love that Southern drawl, for

much more important than a man's geographical antecedents are the liberalism and basic kindness that are an inherent part of a good man's personality.

These qualities are symbolic of what William Heard Kilpatrick has stood for during his whole career as educator and citizen—in the classroom, in the broad field of education, and in the even broader fields of human relations. He has had slight patience with the mawkish, bungling kind of activity which so frequently masquerades under the name of "intergroup education" but which actually does a disservice to the very cause it professes to promote because of its distorted emphasis upon differences rather than likenesses between human beings. And Dr. Kilpatrick has concentrated on the basic and essential commonalty of human life. His approach has been practical and specific. He is concerned not only with the purpose but also with the result of program planning. It goes without saying that in his concept of education there is no place either for the exclusion of Negro children from their fellows, or for disproportionate concentration upon the Negro child, whether in classroom instruction, play activities, or social growth as a human being. The Kilpatrick objective is the adjustment of the whole child to the whole community.

Samuel Tenenbaum's fine biography has called this man "A Trail Blazer in Education." We in the Urban League call him "a trail blazer in human relations"—in basic Americanism—because of the way in which his educational philosophy has permeated American thought beyond the scope of the classroom. As a trail blazer he has guided us through the woods of confusion and the morass of prejudice, across the divide that so tragically separates millions of Americans of different races, faiths, and economic cir-

cumstances, up the steep cliffs of stubborn ignorance and blind error, on to the broad plain of human understanding and cooperation—the high, level ground where increasing millions of our fellow Americans are coming to stand together in mutual trust, fellowship, and confidence.

I seldom quote poetry, because I seldom remember it exactly, but there comes to my mind an excerpt from one of Reinhold Niebuhr's writings which, I believe, is called "Creed for Americans." The excerpt is this:

God, give us patience to endure that which cannot be changed;
Give us courage to change that which can be changed;
And give us wisdom to know the one from the other.

The precious gifts which Dr. Kilpatrick has shared with his fellow Americans are those of patience, courage, and wisdom. For this sharing of himself with those about him, for his contribution to the cause of democracy and world brotherhood, we are eternally and affectionately grateful.

. . . on Public Affairs

DAVID DUBINSKY

PRESIDENT, INTERNATIONAL LADIES' GARMENT WORKERS' UNION

I HAVE known of Professor Kilpatrick for many years, but my first contact with him was seven years ago when he, along with a group of other educators, helped to found the Liberal Party. At that time, we were not only a minority; we were a minority of a minority. We almost felt that we stood alone. But Dr. Kilpatrick was one of those who felt that when you are right, you must not be afraid to fight for principles even if you stand alone.

I believe that the outgrowth of this decision in which he played an important part—the decision to stand for what we thought was right even though we were small in number—has justified the action. We felt then that New York had a rendezvous with both democracy and decency. This year New York kept the date, and Professor and Brother Kilpatrick, along with all of us, has reason to rejoice.

We have had the opportunity to hear him speak out on matters such as civil liberties, race discrimination, the development of our public schools, intercultural relations, and on many other social and political questions, even when his was not for the moment the popular voice.

We have had many opportunities to work for these causes together with Dr. Kilpatrick and other educators—Dr. George S. Counts, Dr. John L. Childs, and Dr. John Dewey, for example. It indicates a growing tendency on the part of progressive labor and the liberal intellectual to work together. For many years the liberal intellectual was the subject of great suspicion in some labor circles, ranging from the IWW to the most conservative. Today the enlightened unions see the men and women of learning as teachers not merely in the classroom but in the entire community. And

today the teachers of liberalism in our community see the unions as an effective and realistic mass organization for the realization of well-conceived social aims.

Dr. Kilpatrick is a great teacher in the largest sense of the word: a man teaching his fellow men how to assume their social and political responsibilities. He has helped shape better men and women dedicated to a better society. He recognized that the school is not a place to hide from the facts of life; the school is a place to learn the truth about life. The school is not a place to hide from social responsibilities; it is a place to prepare for shouldering responsibilities.

As a trade-union representative whose hundreds of thousands of members must year in and year out wrestle with the hard realities of their economic, social, and political existence, I wish to pay tribute to Dr. Kilpatrick as one who has helped make the school a place where young men and women of learning can join with their fellow citizens in solving the complex and difficult problems of our daily living. His teaching has helped to bridge the gap between men of learning and men of labor.

You must remember that the trade-unions have expected much from the public schools. In our first Workingmen's Parties in this country, back in 1827, the most important plank was for free public education. Workers always believed that education would improve their status as breadwinners. But more important, they felt that education would make them wiser citizens and voters. The coming of the public schools has not given us the utopia that some of the early labor leaders hoped for. But labor continues to have faith in widespread education, because, although the path of progress is hard and long, education gives us the light to follow the road.

To those of us who are Americans by choice and not by birth, free education had an additional appeal. The United States was a country where we immigrants would have the freedom to learn. Because Dr. Kilpatrick has done so much to extend free public education—to make it available and meaningful for working people and immigrants—these working people and immigrants do him honor. He has enabled millions, from all classes and nations, to enrich America—materially and spiritually.

Education, of course, like the rest of our society, is in constant need of change and improvement. Dr. Kilpatrick has been a great force in making us re-examine our systems of education, to make the schools meet the needs of a changing society. As the trade-union element in the progressive American tradition, we too have our constructive criticisms. We would like to see education extended to include all, regardless of sex, race, or creed. We would like our school children to have a better grasp of labor's contribution to the American community. Too many of our boys and girls go out into industrial life uninformed and, indeed, misinformed about the part that trade unions play in making democracy a real and vital force in industry. Too often, our boys and girls come out of the schools with a great collection of facts but with a weak sense of social and political responsibility.

When I speak of the union as an educational force, I do not limit myself to the formal classes conducted in union headquarters. I refer to the total operation of the union, as a place where, through daily experience, millions of working people learn to play a constructive democratic role in both our industrial and our political life. Because we, in our union, have enriched

our living with our learning, and because schools, under the guidance of men like Dr. Kilpatrick, have based their learning on living, the realistic educator and the enlightened trade unionist can join hands for the common good of our community. This progressive alliance between the enlightened worker and the realistic educator is the backbone of American liberalism.

Reactionaries sometimes are afraid that, if the workers' children are taught to think for themselves, revolutionary consequences will follow. They have attacked Dr. Kilpatrick and his associates as being dangerous elements in our social life. Labor has no such fears. Indeed, the reactionaries of the left, as well as the reactionaries of the right, denounce the ideas that Dr. Kilpatrick stands for. Recently, for example, the New York Communist daily violently attacked Dr. Kilpatrick, along with Dewey, Childs, and Counts. Dewey is described as the "leading imperialist ideologist." He is alleged to believe in monopoly capitalism and to desire to develop "traits which either prevent participation in working-

class struggles or lead to opportunism and betrayals of these struggles." In short, all the ideas which were started by Dr. Dewey and applied by his disciple, Dr. Kilpatrick, are said to be an "essential reactionary theory."

To people like myself, this attack is Dr. Kilpatrick's certificate of moral and intellectual strength. By his enemies shall you know him. Dr. Kilpatrick and his ideas and his ideals are under constant attack from those who hold to the dogmas of the past and those who insist upon the dogmas of the future—and we know that the difference is not very great. They fear the mind that questions—the free mind. They fear the pioneer spirit of exploration and invention.

Because labor believes that the free mind is the basis of a free society, we join all of you here to honor Dr. Kilpatrick tonight, for he—as much as any one person—represents the spirit of freedom in American thought and action.

As spokesman for labor here this evening, I want to say, "Happy Birthday, Dr. and Brother Kilpatrick," and to extend to you best wishes.

. . . on the Curriculum

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

DEAN OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

CONSIDER it a privilege to join with you tonight in honoring Dr. Kilpatrick on his eightieth birthday. We at Teachers College are proud of his membership in our faculty. We prize the contribution that he has made to our tradition of being an institution which fosters study of the fundamental problems of education. This tradition con-

tinuously exerts a guiding influence on our planning and work.

It is both easy and difficult to appraise Dr. Kilpatrick's influence on the curriculum. It is easy because, in this field especially, I believe his remarkable insight and special talent find expression. It is difficult because his influence has been so great and has so many ramifications

that within a brief statement it is impossible to indicate its reach.

One of the most persistent and troublesome problems in educational planning and program development is the relating of theory and practice. Again and again one is confronted by situations in which the fundamental ideas underlying educational practice have not been clarified and evaluated. Sound curriculum development depends on bridging this gap between theory and practice, and it is in this area that Dr. Kilpatrick is supreme.

From the beginning of his work at Teachers College, Dr. Kilpatrick dealt with curriculum problems. While the term "method" was generally used in the early years, it is quite clear that the concepts which he was developing bore directly on the nature and organization of the curriculum as we later came to understand these terms. Very early he began to seek a means of unifying the various ideas he was developing regarding the educative process. In 1918 he presented in written form his concept of the project method as a means of serving this purpose.

The project method, when applied to the entire curriculum, involved fundamental curriculum reform. It received wide attention and stimulated some of the most fruitful curriculum experimentation ever undertaken. From that time forward Dr. Kilpatrick's influence on curriculum development, both in American schools and in the schools of other countries, has been profound and pervasive.

Down through the years Dr. Kilpatrick has refined, extended, and reinterpreted his ideas continuously, but there has run through his work consistent emphasis on certain basic concepts. As a consequence, although the school curriculum has gone through various phases

during his career, his influence has constantly stimulated and supported certain major lines of development. It is sometimes implied that his influence on the curriculum was largely restricted to the organized progressive education movement and to the elementary school. This is by no means the case. While his role in the progressive education movement was very great indeed, his influence was felt in all types of curriculum programs. While his ideas were most readily adopted in the elementary school, his influence reached to every level—secondary, collegiate, and adult.

There are six major concepts that run through Dr. Kilpatrick's writing and speaking that I believe have exerted an especially powerful influence on curriculum development. I shall suggest what seems to me to be the main implication for the curriculum of each concept.

1. He has urged that purposeful activity is essential to good learning; consequently, a sound curriculum should be based on felt needs of pupils, providing opportunity for them to participate in selecting and planning their experiences.

2. He has insisted that learning is an active process, that we learn to do by doing; consequently, the curriculum should provide experiences in the kind of living it is hoped pupils will seek when not under the direction of the school.

3. He has pointed out that prediction of the needs that children will have as adults in a rapidly changing world is exceedingly hazardous and that such predictions are so unrelated to the present experience of children as to be largely meaningless to them; consequently, the best means of educating to solve future problems is teaching pupils how to meet their present problems effectively.

4. He has emphasized that the personality of the immature child or youth should be respected quite as much as that of the adult; consequently, the curriculum should cultivate the unique qualities of each individual, avoiding indoctrination and providing a setting in which he can arrive at his own judgments and formulate his own distinctive value patterns.

5. He has pointed out that the whole child is affected by every experience he undergoes; consequently, the curriculum should be quite as much concerned with emotional, social, and physical development as with intellectual achievement, and every experience should be tested in terms of the total influence it will have on the learner.

6. He has shown that the traditional subject framework of the curriculum makes it largely impossible to organize instruction into purposeful experiences based on the felt needs of pupils; consequently, the structure of the curriculum should be modified so that pupils' felt needs may be used as the primary basis for organizing instruction, and content from a variety of fields may be readily drawn upon to meet these needs.

The best way to gain understanding and appreciation of Dr. Kilpatrick's influence on the curriculum is to visit and

compare classrooms in which the ideas he stands for are not accepted and classrooms in which they are accepted. The difference is striking indeed, and few are the teachers and parents who, with this firsthand evidence, will not conclude that the latter classrooms provide richer and more significant educational opportunities for pupils.

One of Dr. Kilpatrick's outstanding characteristics is his understanding of the problems and conditions encountered in the classroom. Over the years, he has demonstrated extraordinary ability to make clear to classroom teachers the implications for their work of basic conceptions of the goals of education and the nature of the learning process. He has done even more than this. He has stimulated a conviction and an enthusiasm that have caused them to undertake to put their new ideas into practice. As a consequence, he has exerted an extraordinary influence on the curriculum at the point that really counts—the work of teachers with pupils.

Because of Dr. Kilpatrick's influence on the curriculum, thousands upon thousands of children and youth are living richer, happier, and more meaningful lives than otherwise would have been the case. What greater achievement could any man have?

... on the Philosophy of Education

KENNETH D. BENNE

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
PRESIDENT, AMERICAN EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

WHY do men and women in large numbers seek the presence of a great man to celebrate his birthday? Why are we here together tonight to celebrate the eightieth birthday of William Heard Kilpatrick? I suppose there are always two purposes served in such a celebration. We come together, first of all, to honor a valued friend, to express our affection and respect for him, to voice to him our appreciation of his many achievements. But, at the same time, we come into the presence of a great man to seek help for ourselves in facing and dealing with the difficulties that beset us.

I can add little to the fine and eloquent tributes which have already been expressed. I can only endorse them both for myself and for those whom I represent here tonight. We of the American Education Fellowship recognize, as the previous speakers have recognized, that Dr. Kilpatrick occupies a place in the hearts and the minds of all teachers and all liberal citizens, not only in this country but in many other countries as well. As members of an association which has stood in an organized way for progressive education through fat and lean years, agreeing with the statement of John Dewey on the printed program that the ideas of progressive education and those of Dr. Kilpatrick are virtually synonymous, we of the A.E.F., in these lean years, like to believe that William Heard Kilpatrick occupies an especially warm

and richly furnished place in our hearts and minds. And philosophers of education, celebrating his influence for good far beyond the borders of academic philosophy, fondly remember that their discipline provided the primary medium for the fine art of Dr. Kilpatrick and, with both humility and pride, add their special tribute to those already given.

I would choose now to concentrate on the second purpose of our celebration. What can we learn here together with William Heard Kilpatrick in helping ourselves to face and deal intelligently with our "time of troubles"? I am sure we agree that, in Toynbee's phrase, we do live in a "time of troubles." In such a time, liberal forces such as we here for the most part represent are especially beset. Our advocacy and practice of free thought and discussion, of devoted study and deliberation, as the way to meet our problems, to resolve our differences, come to be seen by many as the deepest heresy of all heresies. Desperate men, seeking to shore up some overvalued belief or institution, traditional or Utopian, against the liberating winds of rational criticism and reconstruction, attack the very foundations of rational criticism and reconstruction within our common life. We know how easily irrational attacks upon experimental education swell into attacks upon the basic institutions of free and universal public education. And all of us are rightly puzzled. What

philosophy of life and education should guide us in facing and dealing with the irrational and authoritarian forces which our "time of troubles" releases within and among men? What can we learn here, from and with Dr. Kilpatrick, about the character and practice of a liberal philosophy appropriate to our troubled time?

It may help us to recall the kinds of help which we may properly hope to receive from communication with a great thinker in shaping our own viewpoints and venturing our own best choices. We may, first of all, seek for help in defining and diagnosing comprehensively the problem which we together face. Further, we may seek suggestions as to ways of dealing educationally with the problem, suggestions which he has thought through in relation to the comprehensive problem. Again, we may seek to extend his thought at points where our experience and thought indicate that it needs extension and to ask his help in working through the modifications required. Finally, we may learn from the example of the thinker as a person thinking, from the way in which he has philosophized and has worked his philosophizing into the fabric of his choices and actions. In the time that remains for me, I propose to suggest one each of these four kinds of help in our philosophizing which we may receive from a celebration of the life and thought of William Heard Kilpatrick. And I must be content with choosing one out of many possible helps and with suggesting rather than defining adequately the character of the ones I have chosen.

What then of the comprehensive problem upon which educational theorizing is properly to be focused, as Dr. Kilpatrick has seen it? The problem of education is, first of all, inescapably bound up with the problem of our

civilization. Adequate students of education must, therefore, become adequate students of human culture in its fundamental demands upon the learning and relearning of men trying to live and to achieve a good life within its limitations and its resources.

Dr. Kilpatrick has studied our civilization, as a theorist of education, and reported the considered results of his studies, especially in such works as *Education for a Changing Civilization* and *Education and the Social Crisis*. I believe it is fair to say that the feature of our civilization which has impressed him most as requiring a reconception of education is the pervasiveness of "change," of "revolutionary change," within it. It is not alone the rapidity or scope of civilizational change which helps to define the contemporary educational problem. Nor is it alone the unevenness of the rate of change in various aspects of society and culture. We must take centrally into account the radically novel character of the main streams of contemporary change. Their radical novelty inheres in the fact—a fact most evident in experimental science and technology—that contemporary change is not a grudging adjustment of human ways of believing and acting to changes in conditions which occur outside the ambit of human intention and control. The spread and acceleration of change in contemporary civilization have come from deliberately contrived and controlled changes in human knowledges and arts.

We have, in a word, institutionalized cooperative human intelligence as the instigator and arbiter of change in broad areas of human experience. The disintegrity and tensions within contemporary culture (and within contemporary persons as well) stem fundamentally from our failure to accept and learn to extend

methods of cooperative intelligence in the reconstruction of the moral-political-social dimensions of life, as we have accepted and learned to use them in the study and management of the things and physical energies of our environment. To achieve integrity within our civilization we must learn to accept cooperative responsibility for the planful and deliberate direction of the course of over-all social evolution. The vast problem of learning and relearning thus set—relearning which penetrates to the core of our socially inherited mores, our most intimate methods and mechanisms of personal and social control—defines the comprehensive problem for educational philosophizing in our day.

Such a conception of the task of education is bound to invoke charges of impiety on the part of those who find their central security in this or that uncriticized belief or institution and who claim for such beliefs or institutions exemption from processes of criticism and testing within human experience. Caught in the tensions and unresolved problems of a civilization that has not yet learned to manage itself, we may expect a succession of traditionalisms and authoritarianisms which will resist and attack efforts by man to learn to think and choose for himself in matters of fundamental human concern. Does not Dr. Kilpatrick's conception of the comprehensive educational task help us to maintain direction toward the long-range liberal goal as we deal, as thoughtfully and energetically as we can, with this succession of detractors of human intelligence? Does it not help to furnish a searchlight for detecting the path of progress within the welter of proposed and advocated changes in society and schooling? Does it not furnish the basis for defining a democratic piety, more in

keeping with the dignity and creative potentialities of man than are most of our traditional and humanly divisive pieties? I believe that it does.

A conception of the educational problem like that of Dr. Kilpatrick leads logically toward a view of the processes of education as processes of deliberate social change directed toward building the methods and mechanisms of cooperative and intelligent planning into the fabric of industrial society. And I believe he has so conceived the educative process. Here I will attempt to identify, not to discuss, an element from his thought on which I believe we can confidently build in dealing with the educational problem and a point where, in my opinion, creative extension is required.

A basic unit in democratic social change is the individual person. How individuals learn and, even more fundamentally, how they learn to learn become foundational questions in conceiving an education dedicated to such change. Here, for me at least, Dr. Kilpatrick's formulation of a theory of the learning process, consistent with democratic values, consistent with the best formulations of experimental logic, consistent with psychological studies of learning, and consistent with our best available knowledge of personality dynamics and mental hygiene, is a resource upon which theorists and practitioners of education can confidently draw. I do not mean to say, as I am sure Dr. Kilpatrick would never say, that his formulation is complete or final. The theory will change as our conceptions of democratic values are clarified further, as our understanding of experimental logic deepens, as psychological knowledge of learning and personality dynamics grows. What his formulation of a theory of learning, designed to guide educative efforts,

teaches me is that any such theory must integrate insights from value theory, from logical theory, and from psychological theory and knowledge. A learning theory for educational use attempting to build on any one of these bases alone is a truncated theory and will fail to give adequate guidance to teaching.

If Dr. Kilpatrick has formulated the elements of a theory of deliberate change focused on the person as a social unit, I am not sure he has grappled adequately with the problem of deliberate change where other social units—groups, organizations or social systems of various sizes—are the appropriate target of change efforts. I am sure he would agree with me that the reconstruction of our confused society toward one guided in its major enterprises by intelligent planning will involve changes in organizational structures as well as changes in persons. And I suspect he would agree also that such organizational changes are more than a summation of individual learnings on the part of those concerned. What I would suggest on the basis of these probable agreements, without denying the close interrelationships between individual learnings and structural changes in social systems, is an additional agreement. If we see the educative process as a species of deliberate social change, as I have suggested our conception of the educational problem requires, must not an adequate theory of the educative process include adequate theories of change in other social units as well as in persons (learning theory)? Here then is an area, if I am right, in which Dr. Kilpatrick's educational theorizing needs to be extended. And, if further deliberation should prove that I am right, I hope that his assistance will be available in the task.

Finally, what can beleaguered liberal

theorists of education learn from William Heard Kilpatrick's example as a person thinking and acting upon his thoughts? I believe we can learn much from his example as well as from his precepts; and Dr. Tenenbaum's recent biography will be of help here, both to those who have known him personally and to those who have not had that opportunity. But I would like to point to one feature of his character as a thinker which perhaps we most need to notice today. I refer to his quality of intellectual and moral courage. He has dared to think where his inquiries led him to believe that thinking was required, however unpopular thinking about such matters, not to mention publishing the results of his thinking, may have been. He has defended the same right on the part of others as well, defending it as a sober responsibility, not a privilege, of teaching and scholarship worthy of those names. He has had the courage to claim no more for his published beliefs than the quality of the thinking and study which entered into their formation warrants. And he has had the courage to modify his beliefs on the basis of the honest and rigorous criticism which such an attitude and practice invite. He has defended experimentation in schools and in society not because he knows in advance that the well-considered and criticized ideas which guide the experiments are true but because he knows that he and others will never be able to assess their validity except as they are tried and evaluated in the trial. Of the many qualities in William Heard Kilpatrick as a person thinking which we might well emulate, I commend, to myself and others among the philosophers of education, his courage in thinking and living experimentally while expounding the merits of experimentation to others.

William Heard Kilpatrick: Master Teacher

ERNEST O. MELBY

DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

TONIGHT we assemble in the first instance to honor one of America's greatest teachers, Dr. William Heard Kilpatrick. But our coming together has an even broader significance. We are meeting at a time when freedom is attacked both at home and abroad. Abroad, aggressive totalitarian Communism threatens to engulf the oppressed masses of the world. At home, infringements on our civil liberties and attacks on our free public education are hazards to the effective survival of our freedom and to the system of public education which this freedom has nurtured. As we extend our good wishes to Dr. Kilpatrick, we also take new faith and courage for the task of developing and perpetuating the values for which Dr. Kilpatrick has labored so successfully during his long and distinguished career. It is the hope of those who have arranged for this gathering that through it we will rededicate ourselves to the challenge of giving a larger meaning to our freedom and greater strength to the kind of education with which Dr. Kilpatrick's name is associated throughout the world.

Not many men can so live that all of humanity will have happier and better lives as a result of their living. Dr. Kilpatrick has, indeed, lived such a life. There is probably no child in America whose educational experience has not been altered in desirable directions as a result of his teachings. Even those teachers who refuse to accept his philosophy

in theory have in spite of their philosophical opposition altered their behavior in relation to children. By and large, American children are treated with more consideration, more kindness, and more understanding than would have been the case had it not been for Dr. Kilpatrick's work. Probably no school in America remains unaffected by his philosophy.

But it is not only through his teaching that Dr. Kilpatrick has exerted his striking influence. His life as a citizen in the community, as a leader in many voluntary organizations, and above all his exemplification of his outlook in his own life—all have furthered the values for which he stands. His life has been dominated by the idea of the sacredness of all human beings regardless of race, creed, or color. He has exemplified the method of intelligence as applied to human affairs. He has helped teachers and civic leaders to see the power of faith in all men in human relations. In his total life he has accepted the principle of human brotherhood and made it basic to all that he has done. It can, indeed, be said that he took his own admonition seriously, when he repeatedly told us that we learn what we live and we live what we learn. By living his own outlook on life Dr. Kilpatrick became more than a skillful or even ingenious teacher. He became a *great* teacher with a vast following and world-wide influence. Ladies and gentlemen, I give you William Heard Kilpatrick, master teacher of our generation.

The Pursuit of Moral and Spiritual Values

WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK

PROFESSOR EMERITUS OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

FIRST of all, let me say that I deeply appreciate the honor done me in this celebration of my eightieth birthday. My words are not adequate to express the thanks that I feel, most to all those who have worked so tirelessly and unselfishly to make the occasion a success, next to those who have given us an unusually fine program this evening, and finally to all of you who were willing to give your presence here on this occasion. The honor is far beyond any dream I have ever had. I thank you profoundly.

What I have otherwise to say I have thought to devote to the demand that American life and education pursue in these confused times with greater zealousness and effectiveness the moral and spiritual values of our civilization.

I

First, let us take a hasty glance at the deeper lying factors that explain our present American situation. It seems fair to assert that six distinct revolutions can be named as currently in process, each interacting with the rest to shape our present world and its resulting confusion of outlook.

1. Dating from the Renaissance and contrasting strongly with the Middle Ages, there has been throughout modern Western civilization a strong but varying emphasis given to the human individual. The Renaissance itself, the Reformation, the Enlightenment, the growth of democracy, the period of Individualism—all are

variant phases of this regard for human individuality.

2. Modern science has had, and is still having, profound effect on thought and practice. The Enlightenment, named just above, was the direct result of the scientific attitude carried over into social philosophy. Developments in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, building especially on Darwin, are carrying the same influence further, but now more critically. The current decline of traditional authoritarianism is one result, even though we suffer from this a certain popular confusion as to the source of standards, ideals, and principles of action.

3. Less often discussed but parallel with the preceding, indeed a proper part of it, there has come in logic a highly significant shift from the older emphasis on static essences to change and becoming—in one word, to the prevailing conception of process. As the great theologian Dr. Arthur C. McGiffert said: "Growth and change belong to the essence of reality."

4. The Industrial Revolution, especially as following the application of scientific technology to industry, is currently remaking the world of practical living. Division of labor, mass production, the newer applications of science—these have within three hundred years brought more changes to human living than had come in all preceding history, and the rate of growth is still geometric. One effect of this movement has been to

bring to this country more usable wealth than anywhere else: in 1949, the United States had a per capita average income of \$1453 as compared with Great Britain, the next highest, \$773, Italy \$235, India \$57, China \$27. As one instance, Herbert Hoover has stated that this country, with only 6 per cent of the world's population, has more individuals in school and college than have the remaining 94 per cent put together.

5. However, modern industry raises serious questions. Urbanization lessens the sense of community previously common among us; morality is by so much threatened. Uninteresting work causes many, by reaction, to seek excitement, often in drink and other hurtful practices. While great improvements have been made, we still have the labor-management problem with us, specifically the problem of dealing with certain society-hurting strikes. Finally, we have just begun to study the proper range of "the welfare state."

6. In the outside world we have had two world wars and the greatest of all depressions. Now the spread of totalitarian Communism from the USSR threatens to split the world into two antagonistic parts with the apparent impossibility of effective communication between the two.

II

The result of these and other factors has been the emergence of serious tasks and problems which make urgent spiritual demands on our American civilization.

First, perhaps, is the new task of world leadership which has been forced upon us, a task for which we are as yet ill prepared. Our citizens need to understand and accept this new status of our country. Our schools in general must prepare the rising generation to under-

stand and accept what this new status means, and our most advanced schools must prepare specialists to lead in the spiritual aspects of the practical demands of this new situation.

Certain domestic problems also make special demands, demands which if not met may bring serious consequences. The first of these problems is the proper, fair, and just treatment of the minorities in our midst. Any decent regard for democracy, any decent morality, and (for the more than half of our population who profess it) any decent religion—all alike demand that we treat these minorities according to the Golden Rule, as we ourselves would wish to be treated.

And now to these spiritual demands at home for the fair and just treatment of minority members there has been added also an international demand: we stand before the world charged with failure to live up to our professed democracy. For our treatment of minorities in our midst our enemies point at us the finger of scorn, while our friends stand perplexed and troubled.

Second, recent disclosures seem to show a widespread lack of regard for the proper moral code in both public and private relationships. Many of these disclosures are disgraceful, others while not so bad are still at variance with thoroughgoing integrity.

Third, less obvious to many but still clear to the more discerning is a widespread lack among our people of disposition to seek the finer quality of living. Mere "spectatoritis" is too often sought in the leisure time. An outward show of money is too often satisfying. An empty if not hurtful excitement is too often sought. We need more of the open mind, more of the imaginative spirit, more of personal creating, a greater appreciation of the more spiritual quality of living.

As we face all these problems, it seems clear that we need to improve our education. What we have thus far had does not suffice. Specifically I should like to assert that our education must in appreciably greater and more effective degree seek as its crucial essence the moral and spiritual values of life.

III

Because the terms "moral," "spiritual," and "value" have been long with us, they have become for many "shopworn." They do not grip us as they should. Besides, the revolutions named above have for many destroyed the traditional foundations that once supported these terms and gave them the then accepted right to claim obedience. Under these circumstances a critical glance at these three terms may help our discussion.

A word about the anthropological history of the term *moral* may help to remove any "shopworn" deterioration it has suffered and at the same time give it for many a firmer basis of obligation in practical life.

According to Sumner, the primitive beginning was in "folkways," the resulting trial-and-error ways of managing social behavior. It was easy to see that certain ways of social behaving hurt life, while others helped it. In time the conceptions of rightness and wrongness arose to distinguish the helpful ways from the hurtful and to bring appropriate social pressure accordingly. When this occurred some "folkways" became "mores," socially obligatory ways of behaving. Later, when classical Greece, centering at Athens, became culturally self-conscious, what had been a traditional set of mores, largely taboos, were now for the first time in history critically examined. And morals in the critical and truer sense thus found a positive status

among the intelligent people of the world, with ethics resulting as the severest study of the principles of morality.

In keeping with the third revolution named above, morality and ethics are now studied inductively. As to anything else, the late Durand Drake said, "... authoritarian morality is blindfolded morality." So that morality is now the conscious obligation to act in those ways that best promise to bring the worthy good life to all affected. Three things thus enter definitely into any adequate practice of morality. One is to build, individually and socially, such an aggregate of life's ideals and attitudes as will furnish an effective guiding conception of what constitutes "the worthy good life"; a second is to develop practical skill in evaluating the various possibilities of action implicit in any given situation; and a third is to develop the settled commitment to act up to the best that individual and social critical thinking can find. So much for the term *moral*.

The term *spiritual* tends to evoke greater differences of opinion. Because it is public education that here principally concerns us and because this, according to recent decisions of the Supreme Court, must be conducted on a strict basis of the separation of church and state, I am giving these considerations their due place in choosing a definition of the term *spiritual*. And I may say that in so doing I am at the same time following the earlier and more original meanings of the term as given in the latest Webster. (I might add in passing that I spent most of June in the state institutions of Kentucky discussing the problem of teaching moral and spiritual values in the public schools of Kentucky on a conscious basis of the separation of church and state, as charted by Professor

William Clayton Bower, recently retired as professor of religious education from the University of Chicago, but now working in his old haunts at Transylvania College, Lexington, Kentucky. That experience has definitely influenced my present discussion.) But even more specifically I shall use the term "moral and spiritual values" to mean generally a morality as viewed in the light of the *spirit* of morality, morality in the light of its finest and clearest spirit. As Carlyle said, "It is not thy works . . . but only the *spirit* thou workest in, that can have worth." It is mostly in this sense that I shall use the term spiritual. I may sum up all of this in the words of my good friend, Dr. John L. Childs:

By spiritual I mean those ways of living and thinking which undergird, and contribute to, the dignity and worth of human personality. Nothing that degrades the life of the individual man can be considered spiritual; nothing that enriches it can be considered unspiritual.

The term *value* is easy to define. Said E. L. Thorndike, "Value or worth or good means *power* to satisfy *wants*." Man as a behaving organism is, as we all know, stirred to action by his wants. But, as we also know, wants often get in each other's way. It is now 7:30 A.M., and my alarm clock is calling on me to get up; but I want to sleep longer. However, I also want to make good in my new position. I must then choose. After the conflicting wants in any given situation have been critically weighed against one another and one has won out over the others as promising to take best care of all the pertinent considerations, the want thus critically evaluated and found most worthy of choice ceases to be a mere want; instead it becomes what we call a *value*. As John Dewey says, a value is

"whatever is taken to have rightful authority in the direction of conduct."

IV

With these strategic definitions thus cleared we move to the next step and ask how education can, psychologically, hope to pursue effectively the desirable "moral and spiritual values."

First, what is, psychologically, the effective pursuit of an educational aim? In more common language, when has anything been learned? What do we mean by the verb *to learn*? And when has true learning taken place?

To answer this in its setting we have to revert to the current revolutions referred to at the outset. It was not so stated then, but one revolution very definitely now in process in our midst relates to education. In the third revolution there named it was stated that logic had shifted its emphasis from the deductive use of static essences to the inductive study of change and becoming. It fitted with that older point of view to count that education is handing down on authority to the young and ignorant the formulated wisdom of those who know. On this basis, *learn* in the school sense meant to acquire, principally by repetitive memorizing, the formulations of knowledge found in books; and any such formulation had been learned when it could be recited or, better, repeated by the learner to the teacher. The belief and hope—strange as it now sounds—was that if the learner had the words "in his mind," they would somehow constitute wisdom in him and—stranger still—that he would behave accordingly.

We now know that both of these are too much to hope for. Acquiring words may fall far short of acquiring ideas and still farther from building wisdom; but

even more, acquiring words or even ideas to recite gives little or no assurance that one will in actual life behave that way. Instead, we now see that we learn to behave a certain way by actually behaving that way; and one will learn it in the degree that he himself feels it, accepts it in his heart—and not merely outwardly—as his chosen way of behaving. In other words, we learn what we really live, live from our hearts in an actual life situation.

This means, and I wish to stress the point as crucial, that book learning *as a process* does not suffice to effect adequate social-moral behavior. This does not mean any depreciation of books or of book learning; it only means that we really learn what is in books best, if not only, as we use the book meanings in and for life. In a word, if we wish to uphold character building as our dominant educational aim—and I for one do so uphold character building with stress on the moral-spiritual aspect thereof—then we have to remake in great measure our existing educational enterprise, particularly the secondary school and the college. Our better elementary schools, especially for the youngest school children, have accepted in theory the thoroughgoing remaking of the school and school procedures. In this area, the school is increasingly accepted as a place of living for living, the richest and finest living that teacher and pupils can together contrive. But the secondary school and the college still run too largely on the basis of merely acquiring the contents of books and lectures, with the test of success being the ability to give back the content of the assignments in quiz and examination. Speaking generally, behaving in a social-moral situation has no place in most secondary schools and colleges. In this respect also is education in

the midst of current change, with the revolution less than half accomplished.

One more word, and that about discipline. The older notion here was if we consistently forced a child to behave in a desirable way, even under threat of positive punishment, that he would in time build that desirable trait into his character. Now, our psychiatrists tell us that this is a hazardous procedure. We are more likely to develop a maladjusted personality than we are to build a strong moral character. And careful observation bears out what Shakespeare long ago said, that “the quality of mercy is not strained,” does not come by compulsion. So with all the finer traits of character, the moral and spiritual values, they come not by compulsion. They have to be lived in and from the learner’s mind and heart.

How then can we bring about such inner living of the moral and spiritual as will develop moral and spiritual traits? How can we bring it about that child or youth accepts wholeheartedly what is to him a novel way of behaving?

First, we have to start where the learner is. The new and desired way of responding must to him not seem too new or different.

Second, the new way has to be called for in a situation that appeals to him as life itself. And it is much more likely to be thus accepted if some of his established comrades are with him in the group and they approve the idea. Under such circumstances he will likely go along. But his first response along this new line will probably not itself be *wholehearted*; nor will the first learning probably suffice to build the desired habit and attitude. Additional real learning situations will, under proper guidance, carry the learner further along the road. He will likely respond this second time

more nearly wholeheartedly, and consequently his second response will bring stronger learning. If this can be continued under favorable conditions, we can expect the time to come when this person also will be strongly committed to this way of behaving and will then help others to take the same road. Of course, approval, feelings of achievement, satisfyingness will help strengthen the growing acceptance. These are things that every sensitive and discerning teacher already well knows.

V

In conclusion, then, citizens in general and schools and colleges in particular must accept the positive duty of seeking a quality of citizenship superior to what otherwise we must expect. Specifically, our secondary schools must allot half or more of their time to the more general type of education with intelligent and responsible citizenship as a central feature. This probably means giving up the

present departmentalization for half the day or more. And this responsible citizenship will come only if the students get positively into socially useful work in the surrounding community. The college must do likewise for somewhat less than half its working week.

And now the final word. We shall not meet these strategic social needs unless we recognize that full commitment to the spiritual-moral is an essential element in the effort. Respect for personality wherever found, regard for the rights and feelings of others, commitment to the common good—these are in the final analysis moral and spiritual values and must so be treated. Effective moral commitment is the only safe hope we can have for meeting the social needs of the world. And if this birthday celebration is to have adequate justification, it must mean for us all a truer and fuller devotion to the pursuit of the moral and spiritual values.

Academic Freedom in the Public Schools

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To most educators academic freedom is a cherished concept. It also is a nebulous one when specifics are involved. Although there is relatively little disagreement among the general pronouncements of professional groups with regard to academic freedom, in an increasing number of concrete incidents there is lack of unanimity as to the proper extent of freedom. This division within the profession is greatly magnified in the public as a whole. And the degree of academic freedom possible in public schools depends ultimately on the interpretation given this concept by the public.

Academic freedom is not a right of educators in the sense of freedom of speech or freedom of religion. There are no laws guaranteeing it. Only scant help is furnished by the courts which have woven over the years patterns of interpretation of other freedoms. Academic freedom is essentially a tradition, born and raised on the university level. Only relatively recently has the term been generally applied on the public school level, and there has been a tendency to overlook some of the conditions on the college plane which either do not pertain or pertain to a far lesser degree in elementary and secondary schools. On the university level, teachers are scholars engaged in extending the frontiers of knowledge. They are authorities in their academic fields. Their students presum-

ably have mature minds capable of weighing evidence and reaching independent conclusions. Young men and women are not required by state law to attend universities, and if they do attend they have a degree of choice of institution, courses, and instructors not usually available in elementary and secondary schools.

DEFINITIONS BY PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

The American Association of University Professors was the first organization in the United States to take up wholeheartedly the cause of academic freedom. Beginning in 1915 this organization has promulgated numerous statements concerning academic freedom, has investigated cases of alleged violations, and has, through its *Bulletin*, censured the administrations of some colleges for failure to observe its principles. Its "1940 Statement of Principles of Academic Freedom and Tenure," endorsed by the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, the American Political Science Association, and the American Library Association, even though it applies to institutions of higher education, cannot be overlooked by those genuinely interested in academic freedom on any level. Pertinent excerpts follow:

Academic freedom is essential to these purposes [of institutions of higher education] and applies to both teaching and research. Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth. Academic freedom in its teaching aspect is fundamental for the protection of the rights of the teacher in teaching and of the student to freedom in learning. It carries with it duties correlative with rights.

The teacher is entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing his subject, but he should be careful not to introduce into his teaching controversial matter which has no relation to his subject. Limitations of academic freedom because of religious or other aims of the institution should be clearly stated in writing at the time of the appointment.

The college or university teacher is a citizen, a member of a learned profession, and an officer of an educational institution. When he speaks or writes as a citizen, he should be free from institutional censorship or discipline, but his special position in the community imposes special obligations. As a man of learning and an educational officer, he should remember that the public may judge his profession and his institution by his utterances. Hence he should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraint, should show respect for the opinions of others and should make every effort to indicate that he is not an institutional spokesman.¹

Pronouncements have been forthcoming also from organizations of educators on the elementary and secondary school levels. Since 1932 the National Education Association has had a committee concerned specifically with academic freedom. This committee (whose name has changed from time to time and is now known as the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom) has set forth two

requisites for the achievement of academic freedom:

1. Conditions which allow teachers to present, within the limits of good taste and sound scholarship, facts available on any subject and to express their personal opinions, so long as the instruction encourages students to reach their own decisions.
2. Conditions which allow teachers to discuss all problems freely in the classroom so long as they stress the soundness of the principles on which our nation was founded and avoid mere destructive criticism of American political, social, and economic institutions.²

The American Federation of Teachers has adopted a resolution giving its position in regard to academic freedom in part as follows:

The American Federation of Teachers reaffirms its support of principles of academic freedom. It believes that democracy requires an informal, courageous teaching profession, dedicated to the disinterested search for truth and free to explore all avenues of thought and experiment which may advance the welfare of its citizens and add to the body of its knowledge. Only in an environment where the pursuit of truth can be carried on without the restrictions of pressures or prejudices can the American conceptions of independent thought and the dignity and worth of the individual be advanced. We believe also that academic freedom imposes special obligations on the teacher. He must create for the student the same environment for free inquiry.³

² National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *Report of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, 1950*. The Association, Washington, D. C., 1950.

³ From the Statement of Policy on Academic Freedom and the Civil and Professional Rights of Teachers, adopted at the 1949 Convention of the American Federation of Teachers.

¹ American Association of University Professors, "1940 Statement of Principles of Academic Freedom and Tenure."

The American Civil Liberties Union, through its Committee on Academic Freedom composed of professional educators, operates under this definition:

Academic freedom is . . . the liberty to investigate, to present, and to discuss facts and ideas concerning the phenomena of human society and of the physical world in all branches and fields of learning, with no limitations other than those imposed by the generally accepted standards of conscientious scholarship. It includes the right of both teachers and students to be free, both within and without the institutions of learning, from any special limitations regarding the investigation of facts and the expression and discussion of ideas.⁴

POINTS OF PRINCIPLE

The above definitions vary somewhat in emphasis, but from them and from other statements on academic freedom it is possible to cull some salient points of principle.

1. Freedom from partisan restraints is a *sine qua non* for a teacher who would do his job well.

2. Like any other freedom, academic freedom carries with it responsibilities. It must be exercised in good faith, and must not serve as a cloak for indoctrination or a shield for incompetence.

3. Freedom of the student to learn is impaired if the teacher is unduly restricted.

4. Academic freedom is not designed to protect individuals as such; rather it is to protect the process of seeking and revealing truth.

5. Academic freedom is not a static concept; it must be ever expanding to encompass new situations.

⁴ American Civil Liberties Union, *Civil Liberties of Teachers and Students*. The Union, New York, 1949.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS

There is no doubt in most minds today that some acts of teachers in public schools are clearly safeguarded by the tradition of academic freedom; for example, joining the American Federation of Teachers, an act which often meant dismissal a few decades ago. On the other hand, there are some acts which, by general agreement, are not protected or condoned by the tradition; for example, telling pupils to tell their parents to vote for Candidate A in the local election. But there are myriad acts which do not so obviously fall either inside or outside the pale, and it is in relation to this twilight zone that most controversies arise.

Probably no problem of inquiry is more difficult to handle objectively than that of freedom of teaching. There is the aforementioned diversity of interpretation as to the proper bounds of the freedom. There is the intense emotional atmosphere which is so prevalent in cases involving academic freedom. There is the difficulty of getting unbiased, accurate information from individuals concerned. There is the necessity for placing discrete incidents in proper perspective. There is the problem of evaluating personalities and purposes. These and other considerations make secondhand information especially unreliable, and the obtaining of firsthand data in most instances is expensive in terms of both time and money.

Nevertheless, in recent years academic freedom in its many ramifications has become an especially popular subject for speeches and articles produced for diverse and not always clear purposes by both educators and laymen. The author wishes, therefore, to make his purposes

explicit in this discussion. He desires to present some pertinent facts and to stimulate constructive thinking about this thing called academic freedom in the public elementary and secondary schools. He does not intend to decry lack of freedom in teaching, or to contend that such freedom is being abused, or to give bland assurance that this freedom is safe. He believes that many of the recent and current imbroglios have been due largely to a failure of educators and their publics to think through the issues calmly before crises arise.

APPROACHES TO THE PROBLEM

There are many possible ways to approach the status of academic freedom in the public schools. One way would be to look at the subject areas wherein restrictions occur (politics, economics, religion, and so forth). This is essentially the procedure used in the first volume of the only comprehensive general study of freedom of teaching in the public schools. That research was sponsored by the Commission on Social Studies in the Schools and carried out by Howard K. Beale in the mid-1930's. The picture of freedom of teachers at that time was not a bright one according to Beale.⁵ Another approach is to examine the restrictions placed on teachers relative to conduct and work within the classroom and outside of the classroom. A third method would be to analyze the restrictions according to source (those prescribed by the laws of a state, those set up by local boards of education and administrative rulings, those imposed by community mores, those urged by special groups, and those voluntarily assumed by teach-

ers who are desirous of avoiding trouble).

The frame of reference to be used here involves elements of the other approaches and calls for viewing the problem of academic freedom in terms of restrictions on what is taught, on how it is taught, and on who teaches it. The facts are selected solely on the bases that they are typical of restrictions, incidents, and situations concerning various topics in different sections of the country; and that they impinge on academic freedom. Whether or not they violate academic freedom must be decided by the reader in terms of his interpretation of the proper bounds of freedom of teaching and learning in public elementary and secondary schools.

WHAT IS TAUGHT

The *what is taught* applies to curriculum in its narrowest sense of subject matter or content of instruction. All states have some laws pertaining to the curriculum. State laws in this area are of two kinds: those that require certain things to be taught and those that prohibit teaching specific things. Most of the positively oriented laws, while they may be annoying in their details, do not take away or threaten academic freedom in any sense. These may require that the effects of alcohol and narcotics be taught, that instruction be given in physical education, that conservation of natural resources be taught, and so on, covering a wide variety of noncontroversial topics. On the other hand, there are laws less easy to interpret and more subject to local abuse. In Arkansas, for example, "the instilling into the hearts of the various pupils of an understanding of the United States and a love of country and of a devotion to the principles of American Government shall be the pri-

⁵ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1936.

mary object" of instruction in American history, which must be given during "at least one hour in every scholastic week."⁶ Minnesota law prescribes the teaching on at least one day of each week of "exercises tending and calculated to encourage and inculcate a spirit of patriotism in the pupils," and specifies that these exercises include "the singing of patriotic songs [and] reading from American history and from the biographies of American statesmen and patriots."⁷

The negatively oriented laws often pose more of a threat to academic freedom. An Oklahoma statute forbids "teaching disloyalty to the American Constitutional system of government."⁸ Pennsylvania law provides that a teacher must not "teach or advocate the overthrow of the government of the United States or of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania by revolution or the changing of the form of the government of the United States or of the government of Pennsylvania by means not provided for in the Constitution of the United States or the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania."⁹ A New Hampshire law states that "no teacher shall advocate communism as a political doctrine or any other doctrine which includes the overthrow by force of the government."¹⁰ These restraints are samples of a type imposed on teachers by state laws in nineteen states.¹¹

A quarter of a century ago several

⁶ School Laws of Arkansas (1943), sec. 11730.

⁷ Laws of Minnesota (1941), c. 169, art. 9, sec. 16.

⁸ Oklahoma Statutes (1949 Supp.), 70:6-2.

⁹ Pennsylvania Statutes Ann. (1949 Supp.), sec. 65-152.

¹⁰ New Hampshire Laws of 1949, c. 312.

¹¹ E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., *The School Administrator and Subversive Activities*, pp. 14-23.

states forbade by law the teaching of any theory of creation other than that of divine origin. John Scopes in Tennessee taught the theory of evolution and brought about the famous trial which featured William Jennings Bryan on the side of the prosecution and Clarence Darrow as defense attorney. Even though the anti-evolution law was upheld by the court (Scopes was freed of penalty on a technicality), the publicity given the case, in effect, ruled out enforcement of laws preventing the teaching of evolution.

Acting under a 1950 law which permits a pupil to be excused from a study of health and hygiene conflicting with the religion of his parents, the New York State Commissioner of Education ruled that children of the Christian Science faith were to be excused from learning the germ theory of disease. In Rhode Island, a similar exception was made in a 1949 law providing for compulsory health and physical education instruction.

Pressures for the inclusion or exclusion of broad areas of study or of particular items are often brought to bear on schools by special interest groups. These forces are felt most frequently in the areas of "the three R's," socialism and communism, moral and spiritual values, and American history. Despite test results to the contrary, many protests are heard to the effect that schools are neglecting the fundamentals. "High school graduates cannot spell." "Sixth-grade pupils can't name the forty-eight states." "My son can't write legibly." Innovations in the curriculum are often considered "frills," and in many places afford opportunities for attacks on teach-

ers and administrators; e.g., school camping in Pasadena.

Hue and cry to the effect that schools are teaching socialism or communism is being heard in all parts of the country. The National Council for American Education lists among its objectives "to eradicate from our schools Marxism, Socialism, Communism and all other forces that seek to destroy the liberty of the American people." "When will Americans awaken? How much longer will they permit their schools to foster Socialism?" this organization asks in an undated leaflet centered on attacking the book *Design for America* (Theodore Brameld and others).

"The schools are godless" is a charge which, while not new, is frequently heard. This accusation comes chiefly from sectarian religious sources and from non-religious groups hostile enough to the public schools to drag in this shibboleth.

Then there are the groups which object to the way American history is taught. The Guardians of American Education are pledged in part "to protect public school education against current inroads of propaganda designed to discredit patriotic Americanism." The Institute for Public Service has published a leaflet expressing the idea that "knowing Europe's history and lacks won't protect USA if we don't know, and feel for, our American Heritage. Learning, and feeling for, our American Heritage are now made so difficult by schools, colleges, professional schools and libraries, that they cannot reasonably be expected [*sic*]." ¹²

¹² Institute for Public Service, *Unactive Americanism Is a Worse Menace Than Un-American Activity*. Public Service 1022, The Institute, New York, no date.

HOW IT IS TAUGHT

The *how* of teaching, involving pervading philosophy, methods, and materials, is a second broad area with which academic freedom is concerned. Numerous pressures from various groups are felt in relation to aspects of "progressive education." The usual procedure is not to define this term, but rather simply to attack it with the imputation that it is synonymous with everything anyone thinks is wrong in the schools. The *Saturday Evening Post* carried a signed editorial on July 14, 1951, in which the author claims that "progressivism" as a philosophy of education holds that experts should run the schools with no interference from parents and that taxpayers should have no voice in how tax money is spent in schools. The author of the editorial has also written the pamphlet *Private Schools: The Solution to America's Educational Problem*,¹³ distributed by the previously mentioned National Council for American Education. This organization also has published the brochure *Progressive Education Increases Delinquency* in which the following condemnations appear: "'progressive' education has curtailed thinking," "'progressive' education wrecks the individual," "'progressive' education promotes socialism."¹⁴ In New York City a group was formed under the name Coordinating Committee to Oppose the New Method of Progressive Education.

The furor over textbooks in many places is a grave threat to the academic

¹³ Frank Chodorov, *Private Schools: The Solution to America's Educational Problem*. National Council for American Education, New York, no date.

¹⁴ Allen A. Zoll, *Progressive Education Increases Delinquency*. National Council for American Education, New York, no date.

freedom of teachers. Protests against the use of certain books have been heard in all sections of our country. Sometimes entire books are attacked for their overall point of view. At other times specific sections are found to be objectionable. A third prevalent pattern is to protest the use of a book on the basis of its author, rather than its content.

The Committee on Un-American Activities of the United States House of Representatives in 1949 seriously considered investigating textbooks on a national scale but was dissuaded by storms of protest. Several state legislatures have looked into textbooks in use. The one which has done most in the area of textbook investigation is that of California. There the Senate Investigating Committee on Education conducted extensive hearings and issued a report including a condemnation of the *Building America* series.¹⁵

The text *American Government*, by Frank A. Magruder, long a standard text in hundreds of school systems, has been recently banned from use in Georgia by the State Board of Education and from individual local school systems including that of Houston, Texas. *The American Way of Life*, by H. U. Faulkner, T. Kepner and H. Bartlett, has been dropped from the approved textbook list throughout Kansas. *Building Citizenship*, by Ray O. Hughes, has been removed from public schools in Washington, D. C. *Land of the Soviets*, by Maxwell S. Stewart, has been proscribed in Glendale, California. Various books by Harold O. Rugg have been eliminated in Washington, D. C., and elsewhere. New York City and Detroit have removed Howard

M. Fast's *Citizen Tom Paine*. All books of Mark Van Doren were banned from public school libraries in Jersey City early in 1951, but the order was rescinded in November of that year. When the New York City Board of Education refused to bar *The Merchant of Venice* from the schools because of unfavorable portrayal of Jews, a taxpayer took the case to court, but the court upheld the board. Several chapters of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People have protested sections considered by them to be derogatory to Negroes in *The Growth of the American Republic*, by Samuel E. Morison and Henry S. Commager.

Periodicals also have been banned in some school systems. New York City, for example, eliminated *The Nation* because of a series of articles hostile to Catholicism. In Newark, New Jersey, *The Nation* and *Soviet Russia Today* are not permitted in the schools. The *Soviet Information Bulletin*, distributed by the Russian embassy, was removed from the schools in several cities, including Baltimore.

Teaching aids other than books have been attacked. The films *Human Growth* and *Human Reproduction*, used in programs of sex education, have been severely criticized by certain religious groups. In New York State a majority of parents must approve before the films are shown. Some children's phonograph records have been removed in Levittown, New York, and elsewhere because of objections to their content and to the political affiliations of some performers on the records. Certain speakers in connection with teacher training have been barred in some places, including Washington, D. C., and New York City.

There are several groups which are

¹⁵ Third Report of California Senate Investigating Committee on Education, filed March 27, 1948.

committed to investigate books and to try to have bans placed on objectionable ones. The Sons of the American Revolution in a petition to Congress for a national investigation of textbooks contend that "subversive textbooks are in general use in the public schools of most of the states."¹⁶ This petition and the supporting brief are over fifty pages in length.

The American Legion has a Committee on Evaluation of Instructional Materials. One function of this committee is to offer "to Posts and other groups and agencies of the American Legion a yardstick by which textbooks and other instructional materials used or to be used in the public schools may be measured as to conformance with the principles of American democracy."¹⁷

The Conference of American Small Business Organizations, through its Committee on Education, publishes a quarterly review of books in the field of education. The purpose of *The Educational Reviewer* is "in the light of truth, objectivity and established American ideals, to examine the publications used in instructing American youth."¹⁸

WHO TEACHES IT

Restrictions on the *teachers* themselves comprise the third important area for consideration of academic freedom. Such restraints may pertain to the conduct of teachers inside the classroom, outside the classroom, or both. The onetime rather common rules concerning such personal habits as dancing, smoking, and going

to church have largely disappeared. Also, school board prohibitions against marrying, and joining teacher organizations affiliated with labor have become increasingly rare within the last two decades.

The prime threat at present to the academic freedom of the teacher involves the question of his "loyalty." Thirty-three states have one or more laws dealing with this subject. Some of the statutes provide for variously worded oaths; others circumscribe the actions of teachers without requiring oaths. The affirmations demanded vary from upholding the constitutions of nation and state (as in South Dakota and Vermont) to denial of membership in "subversive" organizations or advocacy of "subversive" doctrines (as in Maryland and Mississippi). The non-oath teacher loyalty laws prescribe certain types of conduct relating to "subversive" activities, usually with dismissal as the penalty for violation.¹⁹

Accusations of "subversive" activities are being leveled at teachers with increasing frequency. A large proportion of the charges are so far-fetched that they would be humorous if the nation were not in such an apprehensive condition. Most of the allegations are very vague and often involve a complete misrepresentation of facts or context. Only an infinitesimal number have been proved. Yet, some teachers in virtually every state have been attacked in connection with "subversive" activities.

Consideration of the restrictions on what teachers do outside of school buildings and after school hours leads to the question of civil rights. Which acts, if any, guaranteed to citizens in general

¹⁶ National Society of Sons of the American Revolution, *A Bill of Grievances*, p. 5. The Society, Washington, D. C., 1950.

¹⁷ *American Legion Policy on Investigation of Instructional Materials*, adopted at National Convention of American Legion, 1949.

¹⁸ From the masthead of *The Educational Reviewer*.

¹⁹ For details on state and local teacher loyalty legislation and interpretation, see Reuter, *op. cit.*, chapters 3, 4, and 5.

are forbidden to teachers? It is impossible to answer this question definitively. Court decisions have not clarified this point. It can be said, however, that there *are* some things which teachers cannot do even outside of school with impunity. When such acts do not violate the law, there is concern for academic freedom. The most sensitive spot here concerns "subversive" activities. Almost none of the prohibitions against advocating alleged subversive doctrines distinguish between classroom and out-of-classroom advocacy, and of course bans on belonging to "subversive" organizations affect outside activities.

Teachers in some places are subjected to political pressures which encroach not only on academic freedom but on the spirit, if not the letter, of the law. Forced political contributions for contract renewals are becoming less and less common, yet they are far from extinct. In a 1951 report, the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education of the National Education Association states that "in recent years it [the problem of teacher kick-backs] has attracted much attention, and the North Carolina State Bureau of Investigation has collected a large file of affidavits and canceled checks from school teachers showing instances in which they had to 'pay up or get out.'"²⁰ In Missouri, in 1951, legislators from counties where some teachers have to pay back parts of their salaries to boards of education considered this problem serious enough to introduce a bill to outlaw the practice.

²⁰ National Education Association, National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, *Mars Hill, North Carolina: Report of an Investigation*, p. 8. The Association, Washington, D. C., 1951.

THE FUTURE

Despite the dangers to academic freedom in the public schools, some of which are cited in the preceding sections, the author does not feel overly pessimistic about its future status. Changes in public attitude have made rare today many of the restraints commonly applied to teachers of earlier periods. Tenure laws have done much on a legal basis to aid academic freedom by preventing arbitrary dismissals. The National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education and similar groups of some state education associations are helping by investigating situations and defending unjustly attacked educators and educational policies. Committees on academic freedom are parts of many associations of teachers. These steps, accompanying improvements in the quality of the average teacher, are encouraging, particularly in terms of dealing with the most intangible damage done by pressures put on the schools—causing teachers to refrain, out of fear, from doing the best job of teaching they can.

On the other hand, the author does not feel especially optimistic about the prospects of this freedom so essential to good education. Organized attacks on the schools are increasing both in number and in virulence. The nation as a whole is in a state of high tension. Concern over "subversive" activities has appeared in almost every phase of our national life, but with special and exaggerated emphasis on the schools. An increasing number of special interests are exerting pressures to do this or not to do that. The intervening years have produced little or no evidence of improvement in the situation described in 1939 by the NEA as follows:

Laymen to a very large extent and teachers to a considerable extent are not aware of the problems of "academic freedom" at the elementary- and secondary-school level.

Respondents were inconsistent in the practical application of their professed beliefs.²¹

The threats to academic freedom are grave. Yet, although the typical teacher

²¹ National Education Association, Committee on Academic Freedom, *The Limits of Academic Freedom*. The Association, Washington, D. C., 1939.

of today has less freedom than would be desirable in line with new concepts of the role of the public school, he has more leeway of over-all action than did his fellow teacher of yesteryear. The gain can be attributed to improvements in two prime factors—professionalization of the occupation of teaching and public understanding of the process of education. Any progress in connection with these factors will be progress toward more academic freedom, and more secure academic freedom, in the public schools.

Current Staff Publications

THE WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK BIRTHDAY RECORDS*

1. **THE WORLD SITUATION.** William H. Kilpatrick, Hu Shih, and Ralph Bunche.
2. **CIVILIZATION AND THE GOOD LIFE.** William H. Kilpatrick, George Axtelle, John L. Childs, and Eduard C. Lindeman.
3. **PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS NECESSARY TO CIVILIZATION AND THE GOOD LIFE.** William H. Kilpatrick, Walter A. Anderson, Theodore Brameld, Ernest O. Melby, Harry A. Overstreet, R. Bruce Raup, and Harold Taylor.
4. **THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS.** William H. Kilpatrick, H. Park Beck, John J. Brooks, Roma Gans, Ernest O. Melby, and Truda T. Weil.
5. **WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK DISCUSSES CIVILIZATION AND THE GOOD LIFE.** With a group of children.
6. **WHAT'S ON MY MIND.** William H. Kilpatrick with John Dewey and John L. Childs.

AS TIME drew near to celebrate William Heard Kilpatrick's eightieth birthday last November, Helen Parkhurst, former director of the Dalton School, had a unique idea. Miss Parkhurst had pioneered in producing recordings of children's discussions of important social issues. Why not, she thought, honor this occasion with a series of records devoted to panel discussions of Dr. Kilpatrick's educational philosophy. Conversations with friends and former students of Dr. Kilpatrick yielded only enthusiastic support, as did conferences with Dr. John Dewey and Dr. Kilpatrick himself. Out of their cooperative effort came one

* Alpark Educational Records, Inc., Pelham, N. Y., 1951. \$5.00 each; \$25.00 for the set.

of the warmest and most stimulating aspects of the eightieth birthday celebration—the "Kilpatrick Records."

For the student, the teacher, the professional educator, and the lay citizen, the records provide remarkable insight into the experimentalist philosophy of education. The central theme, chosen by Dr. Kilpatrick himself, is perhaps best stated by him at the beginning of the second record. Anyone facing an educational problem, he states, must seriously consider three aims. Although they may be dealt with successively, "they have to be held in mind simultaneously." First, an individual must consider "what he is aiming at in the way of civilization and the good life." Second, he must bear in mind those traits of character in people—"in children as they grow up into citizenship"—that will "support, promote, and improve that civilization." And third, he must develop the kind of educational processes that will nurture these personal traits to support that civilization and good life. One quickly senses, as did John Dewey in his introduction to Samuel Tenenbaum's recent biography of Dr. Kilpatrick, that these notes of direction, of planning, and of social grounding in his statement differ markedly from "progressive" conceptions which would locate educational aims in the immediate and spontaneous activities of youngsters themselves.

Based on this general thesis are six unrehearsed panel discussions. In the first, the group seeks to define the major international and domestic problems facing America today. Clearly, these are seen as the context of the civilizational and educa-

tional analyses to follow. The next three records proceed to a consideration of the three distinct aspects of the theme question: a first, in which the panel attempts to delineate the ideals, values, and conditions of the "good life"—defined here as a free society; a second, in which the panel tries to isolate the personal traits of individuals who will perpetuate and improve a free society; and a third, in which the panel seeks to describe the kind of education which will produce individuals with these traits. Perhaps record number five will be of greatest interest to those concerned with the results of such an education in young people. In it, Dr. Kilpatrick discusses "the good life" with a group of school children in their early teens. The listener is immediately impressed with the depth, the sincerity, and the seriousness of the youngsters as they work with such issues as what constitutes happiness, the insecurity of the contemporary world, minority problems, moral standards, freedom and discipline, and the like. A proposed sixth record, in which Professors John Dewey and John L. Childs will discuss with Dr. Kilpatrick certain aspects of

his life's work and thought, will be issued in the near future.

The way in which Dr. Kilpatrick's personality stands forth in each of these discussions will be gratifying to admirers of Kilpatrick, the man. Many will be reminded of his leadership fifteen years ago in the organization of the Division of Foundations of Education at Teachers College, and in the formulation of a new conception of teacher education which it represented. Others will realize more clearly than ever the extreme pertinence of Dr. Kilpatrick's active participation in a wide variety of social and political movements which might at first glance have seemed unrelated to education. Given these and other insights, along with the fact that the records are being produced on a non-profit basis with a substantial part of the proceeds accruing to the William H. Kilpatrick Educational Fund, the useful and meritorious character of Miss Parkhurst's undertaking becomes all the more evident.

LAWRENCE A. CREMIN

*Assistant Professor of Education
Teachers College, Columbia University*



HOW YOU CAN TEACH ABOUT COMMUNISM*

BELIEVING that education for democratic living requires not only a meaningful understanding of the democratic processes and way of life, but also an understanding of the ideas and practices of totalitarianism, the authors have written this challenging pamphlet, which should prove extremely useful to teachers and highly informative to students.

After a brief but effective analysis of the twin roots of communism, namely, the Russian despotic tradition with its economic backwardness and imperialistic designs, and

the theoretical basis of contemporary communism as derived from Marx and adapted by Lenin and Stalin, the authors proceed with an analysis of what they believe to be the six basic Communist propaganda and party lines addressed to the peoples of Western democracies. Each of these is carefully scrutinized and rebutted, simply by pointing out the distortions, false assumptions, errors, and naked lies on which the Communist propagandists rely.

But the defense of democratic institutions requires more than blunting the sword of the party line. Crary and Steibel insist upon taking the offensive and do so by posing five questions for Communists. These are questions no Communist has ever answered

* By Ryland W. Crary and Gerald L. Steibel. Freedom Pamphlets Series. Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, New York. 48 pp., 1951, 25 cents.

satisfactorily in terms compatible with democratic ideals, for the simple reason that a look at the record reveals practices and values in the totalitarian state that are a direct antithesis of the democratic ethic. The authors therefore provide their own analysis of these questions, and do so to help develop a realistic awareness of the contrast in systems and to meet, at least in part, the arguments of the misinformed.

In the final section of this pamphlet democracy's challenge is presented in terms of its great tradition, its respect for and reliance upon free intelligence, its concern for the well-being of the individual, and its defense of human rights, including the right of dissent. These are basic to the democratic way of life and must receive positive attention by anyone teaching about the practices and ideology of Communists.

At the end of each section is a carefully selected list of suggested readings, and as a further aid to teachers the last four pages suggest activities for use in classroom or by discussion groups. The main part of *How You Can Teach About Communism*, then, is designed to help the teacher organize his subject matter and marshal his arguments. It is an effective organization that should make a real contribution to developing an understanding of and a defense against Communism. At the same time, it should provoke interest in further reading, and provide the perspective and balance so necessary when delving into the more specialized literature of this most crucial of subjects.

MANSON VAN B. JENNINGS
Assistant Professor of History
Teachers College, Columbia University

Doctor of Education Project Reports

SOL. I. ZWEIBACH. Problems of New High School Principals.*

This project seeks to identify the problems that newly appointed secondary school principals consider most pressing. In addition, through examination of illustrative material in textbooks dealing with school administration, the project aims to discover how the needs expressed by these principals' problems are being met currently. Finally, the project sets forth several generalized recommendations for institutions concerned with the training of school administrators for increasing the effectiveness of their program in the light of principals' needs.

To determine the problems of newly appointed secondary school principals, a questionnaire was sent out to all of these administrators in the five states that constitute the Middle Atlantic States Association. From the replies to the questionnaire, the resultant problems were classified and analyzed to determine the relative importance of each. Fifteen principals were personally interviewed to discover whether the pattern of replies would be similar to that expressed by the respondents to the questionnaire.

Graduate students in the field of secondary school administration were asked to submit a list of the books they considered

to be most valuable in their professional preparation. These books were then analyzed to discover how they appeared to be contributing toward meeting the needs suggested by the principals' problems.

Finally, in the light of the needs of new principals, various types of educational experiences were examined to discover which experiences appeared to offer most promise for use in administrative training programs.

From the survey of principals' problems, it appeared that 57.5 per cent of new high school principals were encountering difficulties with some aspect of human relations, and 40 per cent were concerned specifically with achieving satisfactory relations with the faculty. The problem of achieving and maintaining sound working relationships with other people accounted for the greatest number of new principals' problems.

The second largest group of problems (31 per cent of the total) were concerned with some aspect of the specialized skills and techniques necessary for the day-to-day operation of the school.

From examination of the illustrative material in textbooks on school administration, fourteen principles of successful human relations were evolved.

1. Any change, to be meaningful, must come from within the individual.
2. Relationships with others must be based upon a deep personal conviction of the worth of the individual and upon respect for his opinion.
3. Talents of the individual should be ascertained and utilized to the fullest for mutual gain.
4. In human relationships the whole pattern should be considered before any consideration of the individual parts.

*The manuscripts of the Doctor of Education Project Reports reviewed in *The Record* are on file in the Library of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Because of space limitations it is not possible to publish the digests of all the Reports. The ones printed here, however, represent a variety of areas. A complete list of authors and titles of the Reports is published annually in the March issue of *The Record*.

5. Change can be achieved only by beginning at the level that the particular situation warrants.

6. Recognition of early successes on the part of individuals and groups, and praise of their accomplishments are extremely valuable in promoting continued success.

7. A high level of morale among groups must be achieved or created in order to attain the highest level of efficiency.

8. The policies of the school and the methods and procedures used for arriving at them should be open and known to all.

9. Ideas should be judged on the basis of merit alone.

10. In all dealings with people particular attention must be given to their basic feelings of insecurity.

11. It is necessary to move slowly, recognizing the force of lag in human life, if changes are to be permanent and meaningful.

12. A continuous program of self-evaluation should be instituted if desirable ends are to be achieved.

13. Programs may be adjusted to fit the needs of a particular group, yet they must be flexible enough to be modified as these needs change.

14. There must be an unshaken faith in one's fellow man, a fundamental belief in the value of the group process, and the conviction that democracy is the highest form of evaluation in group and human relationships.

Finally, several recommendations for administrative training institutions, based upon an examination of educational experiences and the needs of new high school principals, were formulated.

1. Administrative training institutions should reinforce and strengthen their programs of individual guidance for administrative trainees.

2. In order to resolve the complex problems of human relations, there is need for an increased emphasis on group work and processes.

3. Administrative training institutions should seek to provide their trainees with

opportunities for the exercise of leadership.

4. They should attempt to provide students with practical experience in school administration.

5. They should recognize that they can teach more effectively through utilizing methods that approach direct experiences.

6. In order to insure continued professional growth, there is need for increased emphasis on developing habits and skills of self-evaluation and improvement.

7. In order for the professional training school to serve most effectively, it should maintain close contact and cooperation with the area it serves.

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LOUIS FORSDALE. The Interdivisional Program in Communication and the Communication Arts at Teachers College, Columbia University.*

This study records and reviews the essential facts in the development of the Interdivisional Program in Communication and the Communication Arts at Teachers College, Columbia University, noting particularly the points at which important administrative and conceptual choices and decisions were made and their consequent effects on the emerging design of the program. Data for the study came from several sources: primary source materials in the central files of the program; interviews with key staff members; published articles, pamphlets, and books; and the author's personal experience with the program, first as a student and later as a staff member.

The program is a sign of the current widespread educational interest in communication as a comprehensive field of study. This renewed interest in an ancient human activity and an ancient educational concern stems from the fifty-year-old revolution in communication and from recent developments in many fields of study which point to the importance of communication as a primary cohesive social force, and to the uniqueness of man as a symbol-creating, symbol-using animal.

The Interdivisional Program in Communication and the Communication Arts at Teachers College was begun officially in 1944, although its roots were growing before that in many quarters. In the 1930's investigations at the College in the humanities, in general education, in readability, in audio-visual education, and other areas pointed to the need for increased educational emphasis on communication.

Stimulated by the wartime interest in communication and by the clear need for vigorous educational investigations in this area, various groups at Teachers College began in 1942 and 1943 to explore the possibilities of offering expanded work in communication there. Deliberations of a faculty discussion group led in 1943 to the formation of a basic course in Communication and the Communication Arts in the Modern Community, and in 1944 to the formation of the Interdivisional Program in Communication and the Communication Arts.

The program was designed to coordinate existing identifiable resources at Teachers College and in other parts of the University, and to develop with a maximum of flexibility and a minimum of administrative dislocation. It rests fundamentally upon the cooperative association of departments at Teachers College, each of which may contribute to the research and instructional activities of the Program to a degree and in a manner of its choice. Within the decentralized program, activities of the departments have been given a measure of coordination by a steering committee. Three chairmen with interchangeable responsibilities handle most of the administrative details.

In the past eight years the program has grown with the addition of basic courses in cultural anthropology and the psychology of communication, and an advanced Seminar in Communication and the Communication Arts. The work of the program has come increasingly to focus on symbols and the symbolic process as they operate in the arts of communication. Doctoral research and writing by staff members have flourished, and the program has reached beyond

the College through associations with various programs in communication in other colleges, universities, school systems, and teacher groups.

Exploratory appraisals of the program—in terms of critical student response, placement figures, and an examination of the extent to which various resources have been coordinated—suggest that it has been successful in its basic purpose, the development and dissemination of ideas about communication and the communication arts. Appraisals also suggest that staff participants may want to consider several matters in planning next steps. Points for suggested future examination include: (1) the possibilities of securing central office space for the program, (2) the possibilities of offering a distinct major in Communication and the Communications Arts, (3) the need for further coordination of doctoral studies through an informational clearing house, (4) the need for improved continuity in the basic course, (5) the need for revised and additional materials for use in the basic course.

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WILLIAM S. TWICHELL. A Study of the Future Building Requirements of the Public Schools of Ramsey, New Jersey.*

Ramsey, a commuter's town of under five thousand population, is a receiving district on the secondary level for seven other communities. Since 1940 the local population has increased more than 30 per cent, and over five hundred homes have been built since 1946. Live resident births averaged per year about forty between 1928 and 1941; between 1942 and 1949 the average was over eighty annually.

A centrally located former high school building serves all 635 elementary children and is now used to capacity. A modern high school which enrolls 880 pupils, of which only 225 are residents, is also being used to capacity. Enrollments have increased markedly in the last two years, and an ele-

mentary enrollment of 1,050 and a high school enrollment of 1,554 by 1960 are predicted. Clearly, more elementary rooms must be provided immediately. Lengthening the high school day, though undesirable, will solve the problem of high school enrollment for several years; but after 1955 or 1956, increased or separate secondary facilities must be provided.

Low population density indicates that if Ramsey continues to grow it will eventually need several elementary schools to serve its area. It is recommended that the primary school under study be built on the Island Avenue site lying east of the track and owned by the board. Two additional, strategically-located sites west of the track should be purchased. By 1960 Ramsey will probably need eighteen or twenty more elementary classrooms. The present elementary school should be used to house all children from fifth to eighth grade because of its special rooms.

The problem of providing additional secondary facilities is greatly complicated by the fact that the Ramsey High School serves seven other districts. Possible arrangements involving other districts are mentioned in decreasing order of desirability. Enlargement of the present building by Ramsey is

rejected as inadvisable, because eventually some sending districts may withdraw their pupils. The suggested plans are as follows:

1. Consolidation of other districts with Ramsey to form a larger district controlling elementary and secondary education in the area.
2. Development of the 6-3-3 plan, using the Ramsey Elementary School as a receiving junior high school.
3. Formation of a new regional high school district in the Wyckoff area.
4. Changing Ramsey and the receiving districts to a regional high school district.
5. The development of small junior high schools in the larger sending districts.

Ramsey is in a sound position financially. The elementary school is free and clear, and \$172,000 in bonds remains outstanding on the high school. High school bonds are Ramsey's obligation, but the sending districts support the entire secondary program through tuition. The difference between bonds outstanding and the Ramsey Board of Education's borrowing capacity is \$152,145.84. Net valuations taxable for 1950 were \$4,214,039, and substantial increases in ratables due to building may be expected in the next few years.

New Professors at the College



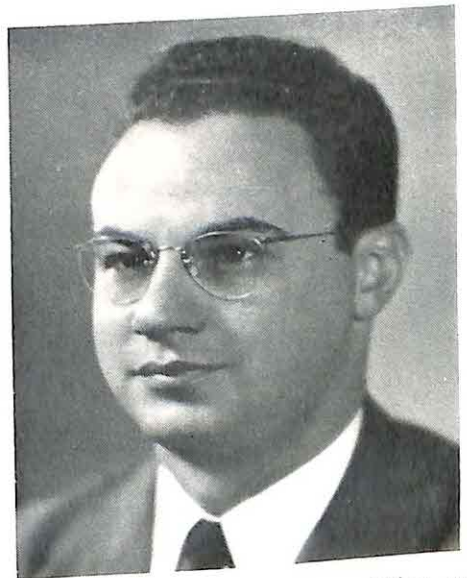
VIRGINIA FRENCH ALLEN, assistant professor of English, is a former research associate, teacher and textbook writer from the University of Michigan. Dr. Allen, who came to the College in 1949, teaches courses in such fields as literature and language, the communication skills, and methods.



CHARLES MORRIS, assistant professor of education, has worked in the Guidance department since 1946, during which time he received his Doctor of Philosophy degree. His work is in the area of vocational and educational guidance and counseling and occupational adjustment.



SLOAN WAYLAND, assistant professor of education, was a teacher and research associate at Louisiana State University and the University of North Carolina. His specialization is in the area of sociology. Dr. Wayland did his advanced work in Columbia's Graduate Faculty of Political Science.



SAMUEL H. FLOWERMAN, visiting professor of education, is in charge of the doctoral program in intergroup relations at the College. For the past three years he had been serving as director of the American Jewish Committee's department of scientific research.



FELIX JOHN McCORMICK, associate professor of education, worked as an associate in the Institute of Field Studies for three years, during which time he received his Doctor of Education degree. Dr. McCormick's work at the College deals with specialized school plant problems.



GEORGE E. MURPHY, visiting associate professor of education, was head of the language division of Pennsylvania State College, an associate professor of education at the University of Delaware and dean of men at Humboldt State College. He is now a field representative of the Citizenship Education Project.



MILDRED L. FAIRCHILD, assistant professor of fine and industrial arts, has been an instructor in the department since 1947. She is a former art supervisor and assistant professor of art from Michigan. Her work at the College is in the area of art in childhood education and student teaching of fine arts.



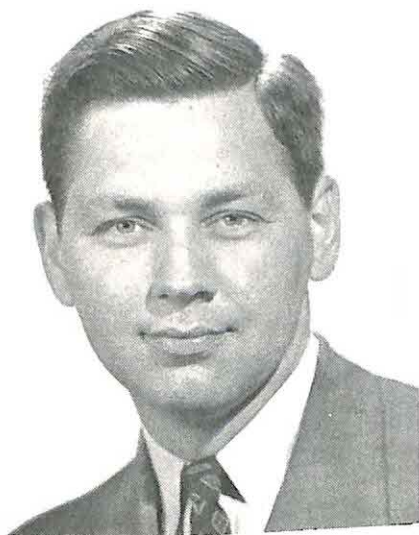
RAYMOND A. PATOUILLET, assistant professor of education, was an instructor in the American University of Cairo. Later he became director of student personnel at the Mount Hermon School for Boys. His work at Teachers College is in the area of student personnel administration.



DAVID B. AUSTIN, associate professor of education, spent a year as executive assistant in the office of field relations and placement. Dr. Austin, former principal of La Jolla High School in San Diego, teaches courses in secondary school administration.



WILLIAM E. ARNOLD, visiting professor of education, is serving in the field as a contact man with the member institutions of the Council of Associated Colleges for the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration. Dr. Arnold is a professor of education at the University of Pennsylvania.



DAVID A. SHANNON, visiting assistant professor of history, was an assistant in the department of history at the University of Wisconsin while a graduate student. He taught for several years in Indiana high schools and for two years was an assistant professor of history at the Carnegie Institute of Technology.



ANNE SELLEY MCKILLOP, assistant professor of education, did her undergraduate work in Canada before coming to Teachers College. She joined Psychological Foundations in 1945, and now specializes in remedial reading in the elementary schools and child development.



E. EDMUND REUTTER, JR., assistant professor of education in the department of Educational Administration, did his undergraduate work at Johns Hopkins University. He is currently working with the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration as coordinator of the internship program.



RICHARD G. KRAUS, assistant professor of education and chief adviser in the interdivisional program in dance, received his Doctor of Education degree in 1951. Beside teaching the various folk, square and social dances, Dr. Kraus' field includes teaching the history of the dance.



LAWRENCE A. CREMIN, assistant professor of education, worked as an assistant and an instructor in Social and Philosophical Foundations for four years, during which time he received his Doctor of Philosophy degree. Dr. Cremin specializes in the history of education and its comparative study.



LOUIS FORSDALE, assistant professor of English, was an instructor in the department for four years. His specialization areas include methods, student teaching and communication skills. Dr. Forsdale is program coordinator of "Horizons," the television series featuring Columbia faculty members and students.

Departmental Notes

Office of the President

PRESIDENT William F. Russell was the discussion leader at the January 13 presentation of "Horizons," the new WJZ-TV educational program sponsored by Columbia University. The topic was "The Future of American Education." Six students took part—Marjorie Northrup, E. K. Fretwell, Jr., Bill Wharton, and Ona Borrowman from Teachers College, Elizabeth Cameron from Union Theological Seminary and Carleton J. Frarey from the School of Library Service. President Russell discussed future education on the basis of projecting trends as known from past to present, using the teaching of spelling as a simple illustration and contrasting McGuffey's books and methods with the modern such as those recommended by Professor Arthur I. Gates. In the give and take period which followed, a variety of questions were raised, touching upon such diverse topics as Communism, visual aids, discipline and morals.

Office of the Dean

DEAN Hollis L. Caswell was elected to the Board of Directors of the United Community Defense Services, Inc., and to the Commission on Educational Organizations of the National Conference of Christians and Jews for 1952.

Division I

Foundations of Education

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

ONE of the three persons elected to the executive board of the John Dewey Society

in a recent election was Professor R. Freeman Butts. The three year term started with the new year.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

IN *The American Psychologist*, Professor Percival M. Symonds, as chairman of a committee of the Division of Educational Psychology of the American Psychological Association, will publish a report on "Psychologists in Teacher Training Institutions." Since this report presents a picture of the present situation with regard to psychology in teachers' colleges and departments of education in universities, it has considerable significance for educators in teacher training.

PROFESSOR Goodwin Watson served as a delegate to the Third National Conference of the United States National Commission for UNESCO. He represented the American Educational Research Association at the January 27-30 meetings which were held in New York City.

Division II

Administration and Guidance

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

BASED their information on actual reports by 285 outstanding boards of education throughout the United States, Professor Daniel R. Davies and Dr. Elwood L. Prestwood have written *Practical School Board Procedures*. Chartwell House, Inc., is the publisher. The book is devised to help American school boards operate more efficiently.

WHILE on sabbatical leave during the spring semester, Professor Karl W. Bigelow will visit the United Kingdom and British Colonial Africa under the auspices of the Institute of Education of the University of London. His activities will be related to the conference on educational problems of special cultural groups held at the College in 1949. The conference, of which he was coordinator, was attended by about 25 educational workers from Africa, both British and African. His responsibility will be to study the consequences of that conference and to help develop plans for a possible future meeting. A Carnegie Corporation grant has made this work possible.

GUIDANCE

THE annual meeting of the New York State Psychological Association was held on January 18 and 19 at Albany, N. Y. Professor Albert S. Thompson, treasurer of the association, participated in a symposium entitled "What are the Implications of Government Support for Psychological Research?"

Division III

Instruction

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

FROM January 8 to 11, Professors Margaret Lindsey and Karl W. Bigelow served as members of a four-man inter-visitation team at Teachers College of Connecticut in New Britain. They were appointed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

THE third annual meeting of Professors of Curriculum, Supervision and Instruction was held at the Copley Plaza Hotel in Boston on February 7 and 8. Attending the conference from the College were Professors Ruth Cunningham, Ralph Fields, Marcella Lawler, Florence B. Stratemeyer, Kenneth D. Wann and Gordon N. Mackenzie. Dr. Mackenzie was program

chairman. The department initiated this series of meetings and served as host at the original meeting, held in New York.

PROFESSOR Alice Miel was recently elected to membership of the Executive Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

NATURAL SCIENCE

THE National Science Teachers Association for 1951-52 has appointed Professor S. Ralph Powers as a member to three committees—policies, professional relations and projects and nominations.

PROFESSOR Powers delivered the vice-presidential address of the American Association for the Advancement of Science meetings in Philadelphia in December. He was chairman of the section on education and presided at the all-association symposium on "Operation Knowledge," the theme of which was "Procedures for Extending Communication Among Specialists in the Different Sciences."

MATHEMATICS

DURING the 1951-52 winter session, Professor Howard Fehr addressed meetings of mathematics teachers associations in Binghamton, N. Y.; Knoxville, Tenn.; Oklahoma City, Okla., and Cleveland, Ohio.

As a consultant on the mathematics program in the Bethlehem, Pa., public school system, he delivered the keynote address at their first business education day.

"TEACHING for Appreciation of Mathematics," an article by Professor Howard Fehr, appeared in the January issue of *School Science and Mathematics*.

IN recent months, Professor John R. Clark addressed meetings of state teachers' mathematics associations in Altoona, Pa.; Rochester, N. Y.; Atlantic City, N. J., and Shreveport, La.

*ENGLISH AND FOREIGN
LANGUAGES*

"Our Modern American Humanities" was the title of an address made by Professor Lennox Grey at the University of Florida in Gainesville. He addressed the Alachua County English teachers and members of the university staff in humanities, English and communication.

SPEECH AND DRAMA

FROM November 29 to December 1, the Drama Workshop presented five performances of "The Inspector General," the farce by Gogel. Professor Paul Kozelka directed the production.

FOUR one-act plays were presented, arena style, by the Drama Workshop from January 14 to 16. They were "Seven Women," by James M. Barrie; "The End of the Beginning," by Sean O'Casey; "Turn Down an Empty Jug," by Barbara Packer, and a pantomime, "A Kiss in Xanadu," by Winthrop Ames.

The student directors were Father G. S. Brennen, Jack Steigerwald, James Carroll and Dolly Donelson.

The program of one-act plays was the twenty-third production of the workshop which to date have been seen by more than 19,000 persons.

PROFESSOR Magdalene Kramer was one of the official delegates for the Speech Association of America to the meeting of UNESCO, which was held in New York City the week of January 27.

ONE of the two official delegates appointed to the UNESCO Conference from the American Educational Theatre Association was Professor Paul Kozelka.

MUSIC EDUCATION

IN connection with the Music Educators

National Conference, Professor Howard A. Murphy has been appointed to the National Committee on Music, Literature, Composition and Theory.

Professor Murphy spoke recently before the Maplewood, N. J., music study club on "Contemporary American Music."

*BUSINESS AND VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION*

PROFESSOR John L. Rowe has been named associate editor for The American Business Education Yearbook, a joint publication of the National Business Teachers Association and the Eastern Business Teachers Association.

IN January, Professor Rowe conducted a state-wide workshop for teachers of shorthand and typewriting in Alabama, and addressed groups at the University of Tennessee and the George Peabody College for Teachers.

*HEALTH EDUCATION AND
PHYSICAL EDUCATION*

PROFESSOR Josephine L. Rathbone was appointed to represent the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at the third National Conference of the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO.

TWO new courses are being offered in the department this semester. They are P.E. 266, Techniques in Functional Living with Disabilities and P.E. 367, Clinical Residency.

*Division IV
Nursing Education*

THE Division of Nursing Education started a national research project January 2 to develop nursing education in junior and community colleges as a way to reduce the critical shortage of nurses in the country, it was announced by Professor R. Louise McManus, director.

The project is financed for five years by an anonymous grant of \$110,000 and will be known as the Cooperative Project for Junior College Nursing Education. It will organize a training program comparable to semi-professional education for medical, dental and engineering technicians.

In addition to consultation service, the project will carry out research to test the quality of the new program and to develop patterns for nursing education in the junior college. Dr. Mildred L. Montag, assistant professor of nursing education, has been appointed project coordinator. She will be in charge of a research staff to develop the project and will serve as chief consultant to faculties of colleges cooperating with it.

The junior or community college was said to be a "natural" for nursing education because of its traditional emphasis on training for semi-professional and technical occupations.

A small number of institutions will serve as pilot centers in the first year; others will be selected from a list of colleges that have already asked to join and from a study of other applicants.

Five kinds of institutions are suited for the program. They are the large, publicly supported or smaller, privately supported junior colleges; community colleges with a wide variety of adult education programs of a semi-professional nature; junior colleges in universities that also have programs preparing for the bachelor of science degree in nursing, and a college in a community where clinical practice can be arranged in a hospital that trains and employs practical nurses.

The proposal is based on principles supported by the National League of Nursing Education and the American Association of Junior Colleges. These principles follow:

1. The new type of nursing program will become part of the overall junior college program, and will help make nursing education part of the general system of education in the country.

2. It will be developed "around knowledge of man, including his development and

behavior, contemporary society, the major health problems, and the special services that nursing should provide for man's personal and social needs." This is in contrast to the hospital nursing program, in which students learn mainly by tending patients. The junior college program will be "education-centered," rather than "work-centered."

3. All aspects of the program, including clinical practice, will be planned by the junior college faculty under the continued direction and control of the college administration.

4. Learning experiences will be "carefully organized and flexibly spaced to insure enough practice to permit a student to become proficient, but will avoid meaningless and unproductive repetition."

5. It will be supported by public and private funds in the same way as other junior or community college programs—most students in hospital schools support themselves through their services to the hospital, or from hospital income, which is partially dependent on patient fees.

6. The training period will be two years, and will prepare students for the registered nurse examination.

7. Nursing students will become part of the regular student body of the college. They will take full part in school government, and in recreational and social activities. They will live in their own homes, or in dormitories, along with other kinds of students. This is in contrast to "nursing residences."

8. Educational experiences will be community-wide and will include a variety of health problems.

In addition to helping junior colleges establish basic nursing programs, the project research staff will, from time to time, assist in curriculum development and plan teaching, clinical and field service. It will also arrange work conferences for institutions cooperating with the project.

A national advisory committee is being organized to review the plans and purposes of the project, and to evaluate its results.

The committee will represent the patient, the public and the community, junior college and nursing education, and nursing service.

Institute of Administrative Research

ON February 1, a report of the three-year Bronx Park Community Project, in two volumes, was reported to the project advisory committee. The project was sponsored jointly by the Public Education Association, the New York City schools and the Institute, and was directed by Professor Paul R. Mort.

Institute of Adult Education

PROFESSOR Ralph Spence, an associate in the Institute, has been made a member of the executive committee of the Adult Education Association of the United States.

THE Adult Education Association has appointed Professor Wilbur Hallenbeck, an Institute associate, to serve on the operative committee of its new magazine.

Institute of Field Studies

THE Institute has undertaken a school building survey of the Shawnee-Mission High School district in Kansas. Professor Henry H. Linn will be the director.

Office of Field Relations and Placement*

The following recent appointments are reported by the Office of Field Relations and Placement:

Allen, Barbara Mary (A.M. 1948), clinical psychologist, Allan Memorial Institute of Psychiatry, Montreal, Que., Canada.

**Any student who is taking or has taken twelve points of work at Teachers College may register with the Office of Field Relations and Placement. Any student in the allied schools of Columbia University who has carried twelve points of work is also eligible for registration.*

Annett, Eleanor K. (A.M. 1932), librarian, Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, Conn.

Arena, John E. (A.M. 1949), teacher of mathematics and science, Paulding Junior High School, Bronx, N. Y.

Bartley, Marie L. (B.S. 1922), dean of women, Maryland College for Women, Lutherville, Md.

Berglund, Ruth J., teacher of English, history and geography, Salem Central School, Salem, N. H.

Biggers, Elmer R., Jr. (A.M. 1951), director of athletics and coach, Greenville High School, Greenville, Me.

Bird, Hugh Robert (A.M. 1948), school psychologist, Willimantic State Teachers College, Willimantic, Conn.

Bishop, Olive (A.M. 1950), instructor in nursing, Dillard University, New Orleans, La.

Blocker, Clyde E., personnel manager, General American Life Insurance Company, St. Louis, Mo.

Bloom, John H., professor of voice, University of Arizona, Tucson, Ariz.

Bloom, Viola S. (A.M. 1951), girls' physical education teacher, Amityville High School, Amityville, N. Y.

Boudreau, Robert A., instructor in instrumental music, Ithaca College, Ithaca, N. Y.

Boyce, Edith H. (Prof. Dip. 1950), guidance counselor, Mineola Junior High School, Mineola, N. Y.

Boyd, Dorothy Elizabeth (A.M. 1950), instructor in music, Oberlin Conservatory, Oberlin, Ohio.

Boyle, Norma Depperman, instructor in physical education, Suffolk County School District, Long Island, N. Y.

Brasor, Donald R. (A.M. 1951), teacher of social studies, Chestertown Central School, Chestertown, N. Y.

Brauner, Charles J. (A.M. 1951), chairman, English Department, Bergland High School, Bergland, Mich.

Breslin, Herbert (A.M. 1950), teacher of social studies, New Rochelle High School, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Bridgewater, Richard B. (A.M. 1951), counselor and teacher of history, North Phoenix High School, Phoenix, Ariz.

Brooks, Laverne Alden (Ed.D. 1951), associate professor of education, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Ala.

Brown, Thomas J. (A.M. 1949), supervisor of student teachers, Hofstra College, Hempstead, L. I., N. Y.

Brull, John A. (A.M. 1950), teacher of mathematics, Roslyn High School, Roslyn, N. Y.

Calder, Ebenezer (A.M. 1950), instructor in business administration, State Teachers College, Bemidji, Minn.

Capik, John M. (A.M. 1950), teacher of business education, Harrison High School, Harrison, N. Y.

Carmichael, Lindsay Richard (A.M. 1951), teacher of art, Gaithersburg High School, Gaithersburg, Md.

Caron, Mary R. (A.M. 1936), coordinator of nursing education and director of student health services, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

Casey, Leo M. (Ed.D. 1949), business manager, Scotia-Glenville Schools, Scotia, N. Y.

Christopherson, Victor A. (A.M. 1950), associate professor of home life, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Okla.

Clark, George C. (A.M. 1948), principal, Henry Barnard School, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Coeyman, John (A.M. 1951), teacher of English, Abraham Clark High School, Roselle, N. J.

Coffman, Louise Joan (A.M. 1950), teacher of second grade, Professional Children's School, New York, N. Y.

Colbeth, Virginia Ruth, teacher of science, Barnard School for Girls, New York, N. Y.

Cordero, Frank J. (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and Spanish, Portsmouth Priory School, Portsmouth, R. I.

Cox, Frederick J. (A.M. 1951), teacher of fourth grade, Chabot School, Castro Valley, Calif.

Crenshaw, Winnie (A.M. 1947), dean of students, Gulf Park College, Gulfport, Miss.

Cromwell, M. Frances (A.M. 1930), elementary supervisor, Danville Elementary Schools, Danville, Va.

Crowe, Ellen B., teacher of English and dramatics, The Bancroft School, Worcester, Mass.

Curtis, Llewellyn P. (A.M. 1950), teacher of instrumental music, Public Schools, Long Branch, N. J.

Danfelt, Edwin Douglas (A.M. 1947), teacher of music, Hagerstown High School, Hagerstown, Md.

Daverne, Gerald L. A. (A.M. 1951), director of physical education, Balfour Technical School, Regina, Sask., Canada.

Davidson, Keith C. (A.M. 1950), assistant professor of speech, Ithaca College, Ithaca, N. Y.

Davis, Edwin W. (Ph.D., 1941), assistant director of Student Counsel Bureau and assistant professor in psychology, University of Illinois, Chicago, Ill.

De Freitas, Arnold (A.M. 1951), teacher of retailing and bookkeeping and coordinator of work experience program, Nott Terrace High School, Schenectady, N. Y.

Deitch, Edna, teacher of social studies and English, Bergenfield High School, Bergenfield, N. J.

Donaldson, Mary Katherine, assistant librarian, Toledo Museum of Art, Toledo, Ohio.

Doucette, James A. (A.M. 1947), director of guidance, Saugus High School, Saugus, Mass.

Dreska, Paul (A.M. 1950), teacher of physical education, Balboa High School, Balboa Heights, Canal Zone.

Edgett, Barbara Frances, instructor in physical education, Chestnut Street Junior High School, Springfield, Mass.

Edsall, Howard E., teacher of social studies and mathematics, Grove School, Madison, Conn.

English, Nellie T. (A.M. 1949), educational director, Hillcrest Memorial Hospital School of Nursing, Tulsa, Okla.

Estrin, Adele (A.M. 1951), teacher of second grade, Public School No. 11, New York, N. Y.

Fallon, Thomas W. (A.M. 1947), instructor in health and physical education, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Ind.

Feldman, Edmund Burke, research fellow, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Ferguson, Sarah Caroline, librarian, P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.

Ferrante, Anthony D., assistant director of physical education, Y.M.C.A., Westfield, N. J.

Fickling, Mary Ellen (A.M. 1948), instructor in physical education, Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, Greensboro, N. C.

Forkner, Irving H. (A.M. 1949), instructor in business education, Phoenix College, Phoenix, Ariz.

Fossner, Alvin Koenig (A.M. 1949), band director, Public Schools, Lansingburgh, Troy, N. Y.

Fraser, Frances, library teacher, Columbus School, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Freeman, Frances M. (A.M. 1949), kindergarten teacher, Longfellow School, Long Beach, Calif.

Frisch, Marilyn (A.M. 1948), director of guidance, Mineola Elementary Schools, Mineola, N. Y.

Fry, Bethel M. (A.M. 1951), assistant professor of education, San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif.

Gamberoni, Carl F., teacher of seventh grade, Public School, Manassas, Va.

Gangemi, Rosemarie A., teacher of psycho-neurotics, Grove School, Madison, Conn.

Gardner, Leonard A. (A.M. 1949), teacher of physical education, The Brandeis School, Woodmere, N. Y.

Garfield, Roslyn (A.M. 1949), assistant professor of health, Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, Greensboro, N. C.

Garrison, Alice (B.S. 1944), chief, Nursing Unit, Veterans Administration Regional Office, Baltimore, Md.

Geiger, Gertrude M. (A.M. 1951), instructor in physical education, Washington State Normal School, Machias, Maine.

Gera, George (A.M. 1951), teacher of business education, Stratford Junior High School, Arlington, Va.

Gianola, C. M., teacher of mathematics and science, Eastview Junior High School, White Plains, N. Y.

Gillman, Floyd (A.M. 1951), band director, Douglas Public Schools, Douglas, Ga.

Good, Evelyn (A.M. 1950), instructor in physical education, North Syracuse High School, North Syracuse, N. Y.

Gray, Jane E. (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics, James Monroe High School, Fredericksburg, Va.

Green, Margaret Ruth (A.M. 1947), librarian, Vista High School, Vista, Calif.

Green, Vivian, assistant director of nursing service, Newark Beth Israel Hospital, Newark, N. J.

Guerin, David V. (A.M. 1948), visual information specialist, Signal Corps Publications Agency, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

Hall, James F., head, department of social studies, Orange County Community College, Middletown, N. Y.

Halpin, Andrew W., research associate in psychology, Personnel Research Branch, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Halsted, Robert F. (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and social studies, Junior High School, Kenmore, N. Y.

Hamblen, Stewart B. (A.M. 1938), teaching principal, Goodale Street School, West Boylston, Mass.

Hand, Jay L. (A.M. 1951), teacher of business education, Butler High School, Butler, N. J.

Handy, Etta H. (A.M. 1931), housing manager, Humboldt State College, Arcata, Calif.

Harris, Robert E. (A.M. 1949), director of vocal music, Junior and Senior High Schools, Lewiston, Idaho.

Hathaway, Nathaniel, teacher of English, Horace Mann School for Boys, Riverdale, N. Y.

Heinz, Frank Philippe (A.M. 1951), artist-illustrator, The Signal School, Asbury Park, N. J.

Herlihy, Elizabeth (A.M. 1942), instructor in business education, Westbrook Junior College, Portland, Me.

Hinds, Gloria J. (A.M. 1951), personnel director of North Hall, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Ia.

Hobday, Arthur F. (A.M. 1948), instructor in education and eighth grade critic teacher, Campus School, State Teachers College, Oswego, N. Y.

Holroyd, Sara (A.M. 1951), director of choral music, Tuscaloosa High School, Tuscaloosa, Ala.

Holzman, Benjamin Ira (A.M. 1930), teacher of fourth grade, Willard School, Long Beach, Calif.

Hunt, Wilma J., teacher of English, Friendship Central School, Friendship, N. Y.

Ippolito, Vera Eve, teacher of English and social studies, Cortland High School, Cortland, N. Y.

Israelow, Shirley B. (A.M. 1947), teacher of English and social studies, Southwest High School, Atlanta, Ga.

Jensen, Dudley M. (A.M. 1951), instructor in physical education and swimming coach, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

- Johnson, Paul L. (Ed.D. 1951), president, Jacksonville Junior College, Jacksonville, Fla.
- Josey, Elton J. (A.M. 1950), instructor in social studies, Swift Memorial Junior College, Rogersville, Tenn.
- Kallen, Harriet (A.M. 1951), teacher of first grade, Siwanoy School, Pelham, N. Y.
- Kappler, Richard G., teacher of Spanish, French, and mathematics, Salisbury School, Salisbury, Conn.
- Kearney, Milo E., assistant professor of education, University of Houston, Houston, Tex.
- Kelleher, Elizabeth, instructor in Latin and French, Cape Vincent Central School, Cape Vincent, N. Y.
- Kelly, Donald Robert (A.M. 1951), director of physical education, Y.M.C.A., Torrington, Conn.
- Kelly, Edna Davis (A.M. 1947), teacher of home economics, Fort Valley State College, Fort Valley, Ga.
- King, Nellie Ruth (A. M. 1947), head resident, Talladega College, Talladega, Ala.
- Kinney, Myrtie E. (A.M. 1944), assistant professor of physical chemistry and nutrition, School of Nursing, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
- Knapp, Robert B. (A.M. 1948), staff lecturer on international education, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.
- Knickel, David A. (A.M. 1951), director of music, Milwaukee University School, Milwaukee, Wisc.
- Koski, Edward A. (A.M. 1951), instructor in instrumental music, Public Schools, West Hartford, Conn.
- Kreitman, Jack J., guidance director, Seaford Special District Schools, Seaford, Del.
- Lambert, Eugene W. (Ed.D. 1942), associate professor of physical education and basketball coach, Memphis State College, Memphis, Tenn.
- Lambertson, Rosemary (A.M. 1943), instructor in physical education, State Teachers College, Farmington, Me.
- Landau, Herbert (A.M. 1951), employment interviewer, New York State Employment Service, New York, N. Y.
- Lang, Nancy (A.M. 1951), supervisor of music, Elementary Schools, Sayville, N. Y.
- Laurent, Robert L. (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics, Central School District No. 1, Gouverneur, N. Y.
- Law, Glen C. (A.M. 1950), teacher of music, Shenandoah Conservatory of Music, Dayton, Va.
- Lien, Carsten M. (A.M. 1950), teacher of history, Ballard High School, Seattle, Wash.
- Limenfeld, Evelyn (A.M. 1950), teacher of business education, North Arlington High School, North Arlington, N. J.
- Lipari, Betty F., kindergarten teacher, Rochambeau School, White Plains, N. Y.
- Litchfield, Elizabeth, instructor in foods, State Teachers College, Oneonta, N. Y.
- Lutri, Salvatore P., teacher of Latin and English, Liberty High School, Liberty, N. Y.
- Lynch, Elizabeth Shoemaker (A.M. 1938), reading specialist, Benjamin Franklin Elementary School, Miami, Fla.
- Madden, Theodore M. (A. M. 1947), clinical assistant, L. I. Queens College of the City of New York, Flushing, L. I., N. Y.
- Maneri, Joseph A. (A.M. 1951), student personnel worker, Student Activities Bureau, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
- Marks, Eleanor, teacher of seventh grade, Halsey Junior High School, Forest Hills, N. Y.
- Marquardt, John L., teacher of English, Lynbrook High School, Lynbrook, N. Y.
- Martin, Robert R. (Ed.D. 1951), acting director of local school district finance, Department of Education, Frankfort, Ky.
- Masumoto, Peggy C. (A.M. 1939), instructor in home economics, Bloomfield High School, Bloomfield, N. J.
- McClellan, Mary M. (A.M. 1949), counselor and dean of girls, Will Rogers Junior High School, Long Beach, Calif.
- McGarry, Mary M. (A.M. 1949), teacher of Latin and French, Ossining High School, Ossining, N. Y.
- McGinnis, Terese, teacher of English, Salamanca High School, Salamanca, N. Y.
- McLaughlin, Helen Argyle (A.M. 1947), assistant in child development and family life, Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.
- Meister, Norma Jo, teacher of English, Westridge School, Pasadena, Calif.
- Miller, Marcia M. (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics and librarian, Putnam Valley Central School, Putnam Valley, N. Y.
- Miller, Roberta, teacher of second grade, Public School No. 5, Yonkers, N. Y.

Miralles, John J. (A.M. 1951), assistant principal and teacher of mathematics and physical education, P. S., Amagansett, N. Y.

Mirenda, Joseph A. (A.M. 1950), teacher of Spanish and mathematics, Cranwell Preparatory School, Lenox, Mass.

Monticciolo, Benedetto (A.M. 1950), teacher of physical education and basketball coach, Stratford Junior High School, Arlington, Va.

Moran, Dorothy Josette, teacher of third grade, Christ the King School, Atlanta, Ga.

Moskovitz, Robert M., teacher of English, French and civics, North Troy High School, North Troy, Vt.

Moskovitz, Sylvan, teacher of science, Stony Point High School, Stony Point, N. Y.

Moss, Theodore C. (A.M. 1948), teacher of English and social Studies, Amherst Central High School, Snyder, N. Y.

Muroff, Ruth (A.M. 1942), teacher of art, Junior High School No. 10, Queens, N. Y.

Myers, Earle F. (A.M. 1936), teacher of mathematics and science, Port Jervis High School, Port Jervis, N. Y.

Navor, Emil M., teacher of English, Central Square Central School, Central Square, N. Y.

Noyes, Florence M. (A.M. 1944), teacher of remedial reading, Elementary Schools, Ridgefield Park, N. J.

Nunan, Desmond (A.M. 1951), teacher of English, Phelps School, Malvern, Pa.

O'Neill, Morris C. (A.M. 1951), teacher of vocal music, Alleghany High School, Cumberland, Md.

Paterson, Ruth, teacher of Latin, Foxhollow School, Lenox, Mass.

Pearson, John N. (A.M. 1951), director of athletics, St. Stephens School, Alexandria, Va.

Pease, Joseph Morgan (Ed.D. 1951), assistant professor of education, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kans.

Pollard, Chiles T., director of instruction, Public Schools, Greeley, Colo.

Pomeroy, Edward C. (Ed.D. 1949), associate secretary, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, N. Y.

Potter, Walter F. (A.M. 1933), intern in clinical psychology, New Jersey State Colony, New Lisbon, N. J.

Prestwood, Elwood L. (Ed.D. 1951), associate coordinator, Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Middle Atlantic Re-

gion, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Pupa, Andrew N. (A.M. 1949), principal, Lookout Junior High School, Chattanooga, Tenn.

Quinney, Marian M. (A.M. 1951), instructor in clothing, Wiley College, Marshall, Tex.

Raimondi, Raymond, instructor in English, Orange County Community College, Middletown, N. Y.

Reeve, Pluma C. (B.S. 1940), cafeteria manager, Jefferson Junior High School, Albuquerque, N. Mex.

Reeves, Neva Dell (A.M. 1938), remedial reading consultant, Suffolk County District No. 2, Patchogue, N. Y.

Renner, George Thomas III (A.M. 1951), instructor in geography, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Reynolds, Wynn Robert, teacher of English, speech and dramatics, High School, Shadyside, Ohio.

Roberts, William Henry (A.M. 1916), professor of social sciences, Larson College, New Haven, Conn.

Roth, Betts Ann (A.M. 1951), kindergarten critic teacher, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Rubinstein, Alfred M. (A.M. 1949), instructor in psychology, Mental Hygiene Clinic of Union County, Plainfield, N. J.

Ruffer, William A. (A.M. 1951), instructor in physical training and coach, Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Houghton, Mich.

Russell, Charles H., instructor in political economy, General College, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

Russell, Joseph H., teacher of commercial education, Greenwich High School, Greenwich, Conn.

Saffioti, Lena Julia (B.S. 1951), assistant operating room supervisor and clinical instructor, The New York Hospital, Cornell University, New York, N. Y.

Sampson, James J. (Ed.D. 1951), professor of education, State Teachers College, Oneonta, N. Y.

Severson, Ingeborg K. (T.C.Dip. 1944), acting director of special education, Public Schools, Milwaukee, Wisc.

Shacklette, Philip J. (A.M. 1950), assistant professor of distributive education, Keene Teachers College, Keene, N. H.

Shaw, Marvin S. (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and dramatic coach, Columbia High School, Richland, Wash.

Sherman, Ralph Willis (A.M. 1950), instructor in commercial education, University of Detroit, Detroit, Mich.

Simon, John T., instructor in physics and shop, Fieldston School, Bronx, N. Y.

Slaugh, Robert D., instructor in mathematics, State Teachers College, Cortland, N. Y.

Smith, Raymond E., teacher of English, The Landon School, Bethesda, Md.

Solomon, Stanley (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and journalism, Knott Terrace High School, Schenectady, N. Y.

Spiers, Mabel A., head of English department and librarian, Lackey Senior High School, Indian Head, Md.

Stark, David H., supervising librarian, Public Schools, Franklin Square, N. Y.

Stendler, Celia Burns (A.M. 1942), professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Stevens, John L., coordinating therapist, Public School No. 85, Bronx, N. Y.

Stockhamer, Nathan Norman (A.M. 1949), research assistant, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y.

Stockly, Louise T. (A.M. 1951), teacher of English and Latin, The Gill School, Bernardsville, N. J.

Stolper, Richard L. (A.M. 1943), assistant professor of elementary education, Burris School, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Stover, G. Franklin (Ed.D. 1942), director of instruction, Abington Township School District, Abington, Pa.

Streit, Victor H., teacher of French and Spanish, High School, Levittown, N. Y.

Sullivan, Milton Francis (A.M. 1951), teacher of art, North Syracuse Central Schools, North Syracuse, N. Y.

Taft, Beatrice (A.M. 1948), director of health education, Y.W.C.A., Loop Center, Chicago Ill.

Thomas, John D. (A.M. 1951), teacher of English, French and social studies, Constableville Central School, Constableville, N. Y.

Thompson, Ray (A.M. 1948), assistant pro-

fessor of education, North Carolina College at Durham, Durham, N. C.

Tomasiewicz, Stanley J. (A.M. 1947), teacher of commercial education, High School of Commerce, Yonkers, N. Y.

Torrey, Don R. (A.M. 1951), public affairs officer, U. S. Office of Information and Education, Palermo, Sicily.

Trevethan, Ruth E. (A.M. 1950), teacher of English, Towson Senior High School, Towson, Md.

Tufts, John Marshall (A.M. 1948), instructor in English, Danbury State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn.

Waidelich, Elizabeth (A.M. 1950), teacher of girls' physical education, Allegany High School, Cumberland, Md.

Walter, Leta I. (A.M. 1951), instructor in physical education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

Walthall, Marjorie T. (Ed.D. 1949), chairman, music department, San Antonio College, San Antonio, Tex.

Weber, Edwin J., teacher of commercial education, Roosevelt High School, Wyandotte, Mich.

Webster, James A., hospital recreation leader, Bellevue Hospital, New York, N. Y.

Wickersham, Margaret (A.M. 1950), girls' counselor, Pensacola High School, Pensacola, Fla.

Wier, John Rex, Jr. (A.M. 1950), assistant professor of speech, North Texas State College, Denton, Tex.

Willobee, Mary Beth (A.M. 1950), director of cafeterias, Montclair Public Schools, Montclair, N. J.

Wohl, Julie (A.M. 1951), teacher of English, Nichols High School, Nichols, N. Y.

Wood, Elaine (B.S. 1951), instructor in sociology and supervisor of operating room, McLean Hospital, Waverly, Mass.

Wood, Muriel G., director of religious education, Church of the Holy Communion, South Orange, N. J.

Worthen, Richard J., instructor in English and communications, Contra Costa Junior College, Martinez, Calif.

Wright, Charlotte A. (B.S. 1935), director of residence, St. Johnland, Kings Park, N. Y.

Wyman, William C. (A.M. 1951), instructor in fine arts, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

Alumni Activities

Dr. Charles A. Bucher (A.M. 1941), an associate professor of education at New York University's School of Education, has been named chairman of the New York State Five-Year Program, Professional Preparation Committee in Physical Education.

The committee was established to set up standards for the training of physical education teachers in New York State.

Aleph Theta Ze, a national scholastic honorary society for seminaries, has elected **Marcus D. Bryant** (A.M. 1950) as president of the Alpha chapter. Mr. Bryant is a senior at the College of the Bible, Lexington, Ky. He is the junior representative to the Kentucky-Tennessee district council of the Interseminary Movement, and a member of the College Student Council and the school choir.

Beside Mr. Bryant's college activities, he is the pastor of Newton Christian Church and a sponsor for the Christian Youth Fellowship in the northern area of Kentucky.

The Dean of Women at New York's Concordia Collegiate Institute is **Mrs. Esther B. Hendricks**. Prior to her appointment at Concordia, Mrs. Hendricks taught English and public speaking at Sampson College.

Dr. Angus H. MacLean (Ph.D. 1930) has been named dean of the Theological School at St. Lawrence University. He is a member of the Religious Education Association and the American Education Fellowship. Dr. MacLean has been a professor of religious education at the school since 1928.

The appointment of **J. William Wood, Jr.**, as assistant to the principal in charge of admissions and college placement at the

Horace Mann School, was announced recently. Mr. Wood has been associated with the school since 1943, first as a teacher of French and later as director of admissions. He is a member of several organizations, among them the Executive Board of the Cooperative Bureau for Teachers, is the author of several articles, and a book, *Outlines of Grammar Essentials in French*.

The principal of the Horace Mann School has announced the appointment of **Dr. Harry H. Williams** (Ed.D. 1943) as assistant principal. He is also head of the science department and for a number of years was an instructor of physical science at Teachers College. His affiliations include membership in the ten-member 1953 Yearbook Commission of the American Association of School Administrators. Dr. Williams has written several science textbooks and is the author of various articles relating to the teaching of science.

For the past few years **Miss Lilla D. Hafer** (A.M. 1926) has served as the director of early childhood education in the New York City Board of Education. Miss Hafer was appointed in 1949.

After serving as the Superintendent of the Cleveland Heights (Ohio) schools for the past 28 years, **Mr. F. L. Wiley** has now become Superintendent Emeritus, continuing to work in that position, on special administrative assignments. At present, he is working on the school building program.

A new position, that of assistant school administrator, was created by the Board of Education of Yonkers, N. Y., and **Arthur D. Templeton** (Ed.D. 1951) was named to

the job. Mr. Templeton had been an administrative interne for the board for the last year.

Since September, Mrs. Lena Alberico Pollard (A.M. 1949) has been teaching second grade in the Ernest Horn elementary school at Colorado State College of Education in Greeley.

Miss Ethel Troy (T.C. Dip. 1918) assumed duties recently as director of the Huntington, W. Va., YWCA. In the 32 years that Miss Troy has been active in the work, she

has organized two Y's, and, just prior to her new assignment, was executive director of the Madison, Wis., YWCA.

Since 1944, Miss Dorothy Rusby (A.M. 1939) has been the assistant director of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, Inc., and in that capacity went to Manchester, Mass., recently for evaluation of the public health nursing service.

Miss Mary E. Thompson (A.M. 1951) was recently appointed Director of Nursing Education at Bates College in Maine.

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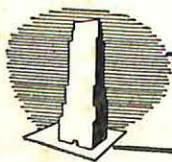
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IN a recent issue of *THE RECORD*, Daniel Davies catalogues a sobering list of responsibilities that modern conditions have forced upon school administrators.¹ One of these is the responsibility for capitalizing constructively on the "increasing active interest in education by many groups in the population." How to deal with "such complex forces," he says, "is a topic usually omitted from our preparation programs or dealt with superficially."

The present article attempts to fill in some details and make a few suggestions with respect to this unfortunately all too true observation. The job of the chief school officer in any community is twofold. It deals with the school and what goes on within its four walls. It also deals with the community which supports the school and entrusts its children to it. The community is made up

not merely of people as people but also of a complex pattern of social units, agencies, organizations, institutions, and informal groups with different backgrounds, with varying and often conflicting objectives and values, and with ideas about education that most of the citizens acquired in their own youth. Each of these social units indicates interests, drives, or pressures of some group or stratum of the population. Moreover, when studied, each such group assumes meaning as a part of the total social unit—the community. Some of them will be educational in character with a stake in adult education.

For the first task the administrator is well prepared. He has, or can get from experts, dependable information about the four walls of his building and the physical layout of it. He knows something of personnel selection and management. He is not uninformed about the techniques of curriculum construction. He can prepare a budget that is clear to

¹ Daniel R. Davies, "Expanding Responsibilities of Educational Administration," *Teachers College Record*, October, 1951, pp. 9-15.

his board and acceptable to state authorities. In these and other school-centered responsibilities great advances have been made in the last half-century.

With respect to the second part of the administrator's work, Davies suggests there has been a "cultural lag." This was inevitable. The profession of school administration was born out of social recognition of an acute educational need. The administrative situation within schools was chaotic indeed a century ago, and not too good in 1900. The problems which are the chief concern of the profession today had to be attacked first. Absorption in these tasks made inevitable the definition of the field of school administration in terms now seen to be narrow. More important, the very success of the school administrator in building the school into an institution of power in the community has, along with several other factors, made it inevitable that the problems of dealing with the complex factors within the community should arise.

THE SCHOOL: A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

The school administrator handles a social institution. An institution emerges when human beings cooperate to accomplish objectives beyond their power to achieve as individuals. The purpose of the social institution here under consideration is education. But the institution is the creation of its society and is responsible to it. It cannot live to itself alone. Some of its present difficulties have been caused by the administrator's trying to do just that.

The processes by which the cultural lag cited by Davies arose are inherent in the structure of any and all social institutions. The institution which grows and survives is the one that is sufficiently

cognizant of the changes in society to adapt to them with a minimum of delay and a minimum of obstruction from the vested interests that have inevitably grown up within it. Adaptability must be not only within the structure of the institution but also within the society.

Moreover, the institution which neglects to analyze its society in such a way that it can contribute to emerging needs eschews the function of leadership and is buffeted by those winds which blow the strongest, from whatever direction. This is exactly what has happened all too often in education. Those affected are responsible for their own grief, and worse, for losses to education as such.

One element of importance lies in the cultural rootages and values of any given community. Mort and Cornell in their *American Schools in Transition* found that what they called "community culture" was unmistakably related to the adaptability of schools with respect to nine basic adaptations. This point could be illustrated ad infinitum. The very last counties in Pennsylvania to progress from a two-year to a four-year high school were those dominated by the cultural group known as the Pennsylvania Germans. Only after World War I did the smaller cities and larger rural villages of these counties move toward the conventional high school. The State Board of Education in Pennsylvania has had more difficulty in effecting school consolidation and enforcing a higher school-leaving age in these few counties than in all the rest of the state. More than one school administrator has lost his job by urging policies and using arguments any reader of this article would accept as axiomatic, but which lay outside his constituency's experience and beliefs about the purposes of education.

The Pennsylvania German did not

hold education to be valueless. He desired several very definite things from it, but the values implicit in these objectives were not those of the educational administrators. It is no accident that at least up to 1940 the median number of years of schooling completed by adults twenty-five years of age and older was lower in the Pennsylvania German counties than in those settled chiefly by the Scotch Presbyterian immigrants, on the average by well over a year.

On the basis of personal knowledge of his native state, the writer carried this comparison to four groups of twelve communities each, 2,500 to 10,000 in population as of 1940. The findings were as follows:

<i>Basic Cultural Group</i>	<i>Range in Median Years of School for Adults</i>
Southeastern European	6.0 to 7.6
Pennsylvania German	6.5 to 8.3
Scotch-Irish-British	9.4 to 12.2
Mixed (suburban)	11.1 to 13.9

Comparably, in the cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population the range in the median number of years of schooling for adults was from 6.9 to 12.9.

Variations of this magnitude have immense significance for teachers and administrators from a purely inside-the-school point of view. When coupled with cultural differences of perhaps equal magnitude, as they frequently are, the importance of determining what they mean for the school increases in geometric proportion. To take only one example, the problem of getting competent school board members and effective volunteer leaders for the PTA would be far different in a community where the average adult had finished less than seven years of school from what it would be where high school graduation was the norm. And the usual type of

PTA program would probably cause the organization to die from lack of interest in a place where the average adult had had two years of college.

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS INFLUENCE SCHOOLS

Demography is a second area of importance. School administrators know this, but the happy days when school enrollment could be roughly predicted by taking a fixed ratio of the total population are gone. One reason for this is the unprecedented behavior of the birth rate beginning in 1941. A sharp increase in the birth rate, along with the war-induced boom in marriages, was expected. So was the high birth rate immediately after demobilization. But the rate has not returned to former levels. While it has fluctuated since 1946, it is still far higher than the demographers' projections based on the slow decline of the half-century before the great depression.

Moreover, the birth rate has operated differently in different groups, and again contrary to expectations. In the rural farm area it has increased only slightly, but in some cities the net reproductive index almost doubled between 1940 and 1950. It was frequently and correctly said before the 1940's that the birth rate of advantaged socio-economic groups and of college women was disproportionately low. Since 1940, however, these groups have made above average percentage gains. For the first time, the net reproductive index of college women has passed 100. There will be, therefore, disproportionately large increases in the school population in communities with large numbers of their population in these social groups. Several advantaged suburban localities in the New York and Chicago metropolitan areas have already

far exceeded population forecasts based on the old type of school surveys. The birth rate is not the only explanation for this. Migration from the cities accounts for a large per cent of the change. One rural town in Fairfield County, Connecticut, doubled its population between 1940 and 1950. A detailed social survey of this town by the rural sociology department of the state university revealed that about 75 per cent of this increase was caused by in-migration. No neighboring town grew as rapidly; that is to say the migration is selective geographically as well as socio-economically.

As Roth² and others have shown, homogeneous suburbs are developing—industrial, white collar, high income, rural, or, as Galpin put it, "rurban." Each of these has its own demographic pattern. Each brings its peculiar problems to the school administrator.

Demographic considerations do not stop here. The writer was once asked to act as adviser in a community conflict of great bitterness over a proposed new school. This community comprised 14 of what the Bureau of the Census calls enumeration districts, each with about 1,000 persons. One-third of these districts had 70 per cent of the children of school age, who lived in houses worth only 60 per cent as much as those of the other two-thirds of the districts, where the other 30 per cent of the children lived. This single datum located the problem and faced the community with a hard fact for which no pressure group or political party was responsible.

The social geography of age and sex

distribution is a very important factor for educational administrators. It is well known that in a few southern states, as of 1940, each 1,000 adults had to support and educate twice as many children as California or New York. Their economic burden was therefore great. It is not so fully realized that even within states there are considerable variations in the proportion of the population dependent upon those of productive years. To revert to Pennsylvania, let us consider a few sample cities, all under 75,000 population, with respect to the proportion of the population of dependent years—those who were under fourteen years of age and those sixty-five and over—in 1940.

City	% Under Fifteen	% Over Sixty-five	Total % Dependent
A	24.8	5.8	30.6
B	22.1	6.0	28.1
C	24.1	7.3	31.4
D	18.9	3.8	22.7
E	18.9	6.3	25.2

It is surely no accident that city D, with its low percentage both of children and of aged, has one of the highest per pupil costs in the state; that the reverse is true in E; and that in C a bond issue for a needed new school was defeated. The leaders in the opposition were close to, or over, sixty-five years of age. The campaign for the new school building never met the point of view of those nearing retirement or already retired and living on fixed incomes. Labeling such persons "old fogies," "unprogressive" and with even less complimentary terms does not build strong school systems.

CENSUS DATA RAISE QUESTIONS

Available data permit the administrator seeking to make his institution of maximum social usefulness (a phrase which includes educational usefulness) to go much further. Space permits only one

² Norman R. Roth, "Suburban Community Organization, Inter-Group and Inter-Personal Relationships," Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1951. See also the series *Studies in Suburbanization*, College of Agriculture, University of Connecticut, Storrs, 1939 to date.

illustration. Of the 57 "standard metropolitan areas" which have 250,000 or more population according to the 1950 census, seven are in Pennsylvania. Four of these rate at or near the bottom of the non-southern metropolitan areas in such factors as proportion of the labor force employed in the professions and in retail trade and other services. They rank low in the median number of years of schooling completed by adults and at the bottom in the percentage of children five to seventeen years of age in school. Three of these four also rate low in median family income, but the income of the fourth is 20 per cent above the other three and only 14 per cent below the top one-eighth of all standard metropolitan areas in this size group. This fourth area contains three cities. One city has one very large industry, the other two have diversified and specialized industries. There are six colleges in the area—two for women, four for men. Other factors which might be described tend to conform to the expectations aroused by the income data, but two of the three cities have below-average school systems as rated by conventional measures; one is exceptionally good. Why have the people of this area not spent their money for more professional and other services as have those in areas with comparable family income? Do they save more? Are their values different and culturally induced? Does the fact that two groups in this area with very high cultural standards support their own private schools, or the fact that in two of the cities there are large parochial schools affect the situation? Does the fact that in two of the cities there are two well-defined groups of different racial (and hence different cultural) origins which belong to different churches and largely to different political parties influence the statistics?

These are only reasonable hypotheses. The record of constant difficulties in two of the school systems for more than half a century certainly indicates that any school administrator would be well advised to find answers to the questions suggested by the census data if he desired either long tenure or to make a real educational contribution or both.

This illustration suggests also the value of seeing in distinctive aspects of the local community prospective state and regional trends. Data from such factual comparisons permit raising within the community questions which might otherwise be dangerous. They also equip administrators to serve more efficiently as members of a professional group dealing with educational policy for larger than local areas.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND THE SCHOOLS

The previous illustration also suggests a third area of importance to the school administrator. He must know a good deal about the social structure and organizational pattern of his community. The former involves matters not always on the surface, sometimes subtle but highly important. The latter is more obvious. The Chamber of Commerce, the Labor Union, the Farm Bureau, the Women's Club, the Portuguese Civic Association, the WCTU, and so on, all have explicit objectives and implicit ambitions. All can exert pressure on institutions and public servants. It is not only state legislatures that have a yen to dictate to the schools!

The fact that some communities forbid teachers to join the American Federation of Teachers is well known. The surprise, not to say consternation, occasioned when a 100 per cent unionized company town some twelve years ago required all its teachers to join this union

is all but laughable. The wonder is that this kind of thing has not happened oftener. An administrator who knew the social and organizational structure and had watched the behavior of social agencies in his community, however, could have foreseen the possibility of what happened in such places, and out of that knowledge could have taken steps to prevent such regulations from being enacted. In this sense the unfortunate happenings in Pasadena are partly chargeable to the school authorities. A sociologist on the staff charged with continuous analysis of the community could have detected the potential threat in time to begin the organization in defense of the schools, indeed of education, which in Pasadena was accomplished too late.

The fact of pre-eminent importance in the 1950's for school administrators is that what happens in the school is conditioned *much more* by the social milieu *outside* the school than by what goes on within its walls. This fact has been amply documented by the Metropolitan School Study Council.³ Unfortunately it demonstrates another cultural lag with tremendous implications for education in the training of educational administrators. Understanding such factors as Pierce explores, only a few of which can be noted in this article, is vitally important in the school with the traditional curriculum. They are utterly indispensable for the conduct and administration of the so-called "life-centered curriculum."

POSSIBLE NEXT STEPS

Thus far the writer has suggested no remedies for the situation. One possibility is to expand the training of the school

administrator to include some knowledge of the sources, uses, and interpretations of social data. This procedure would eventually pay for itself many times over. The superficiality of the demographic basis for all too many school building projects has cost American taxpayers millions of dollars. There are cases of even consolidated schools having been abandoned before the bonds which financed them had been retired, because of shifts to mechanized cereal farming from other types of agriculture which resulted in greatly reduced population density and even changes in the composition of the remaining population. The contrast between the careful demographic studies of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company in terms of the location of telephone central exchanges, and the population forecasts with respect to school building location reflects no credit on this phase of educational administration.

Research of some of the types suggested will enable the school administrator to see the needs of the school in relation to the other needs of the community. This is important because many a community in these days of high taxes may be faced with a choice in the allocation of limited resources. The author knows of one community of about 10,000 population which has recently spent \$1,600,000 for a new school. It now faces severe restriction in its expenses for education and other social services because it is compelled to spend hundreds of thousands on sewage disposal. A somewhat less ideal school building would have been better for education, and certainly better for the teachers.

Along with this should go courses in community organization and the behavior of social institutions. In the last quarter of a century sociologists have

³ Truman Pierce, *Controllable Community Characteristics Related to the Quality of Education*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1947.

accumulated a considerable body of knowledge in these areas based on research. It is regrettable that very few administrators or teachers of school administration know of these studies. In some cases even those done in their own states or by other departments or colleges in their own institution are unknown to them.⁴

The joint committee of representatives of the school of education, the state board of education, and the departments of sociology in the liberal arts college and the college of agriculture in a mid-western state university, which was set up to grapple with the problems of rural secondary education, is the first step of a constructive nature. Another is a two-weeks voluntary seminar participated in by about half the faculty of a New York state teachers college devoted to studying the counties to which most of its graduates go, and conducted under the leadership of sociologists from Cornell who had studied these areas previously.

These two pioneer efforts also indicate that leaders in school administration are no more qualified to teach the social aspects of their problems than social scientists are to instruct in the techniques of school administration. They underline the fact that the conventional type of school survey does not go anything like far enough in its exploration of the underlying forces and factors in the community which are influential and often determinative with respect to the proportion of the survey's basic recommendations which will be adopted. Unfortunately, to date the conventional school survey neither makes provision for supplying these lacks nor modifies its rec-

ommendations to take into account pertinent data of this sort.

But the school administrator, even if given training in the applied aspects of sociology, is an overbusy and often cruelly harried public servant. Securing the necessary data about his community takes time often not available. Demographic and other statistical aspects of this task might well become a responsibility of the social studies teacher and his senior class. The students should know the facts given in the census and in state reports about their home town and should discuss their meaning. They should become acquainted with and learn how to use the many government publications which tax money makes available. The results of such research under a competent teacher could not fail to be useful to an alert administrator.

Large school systems and state departments of education could very profitably add a sociologist to their research staffs. Such an officer on the state level could advise with local administrators and school boards, supervise local research, and supplement locally collected data. It is no disparagement of the work of psychologists, responsible as it is for much of the advance in education, to emphasize that further advances in applied knowledge will be limited without accompanying sociological research. For the child meets the impact of several environments outside the school. The home, the neighborhood, and later the community are all influential, often more so than the school, in the development of children. IQ may not be determined by social factors, though some research indicates that it is strongly influenced by them, but at the very least these factors help determine how the child applies what intelligence he has.

Social factors were obviously respon-

⁴ This statement is based on answers to queries put to the author's students and to professional colleagues in institutions he has visited in the last sixteen years.

sible for much of the delinquency, truancy, early school-leaving, and inter-group tensions destructive of morale in Elmtown. But if Professor Hollingshead's study of *Elmtown's Youth* even approaches accuracy at this point, these factors, so largely unrealized by the teachers, administrators, and board of education, were largely responsible for the obviously serious problems in the Elmtown school. Indeed these problems were so serious that the State Board of Education gave them attention. Its action, however, was not to help solve the problems. It merely withdrew accreditation from Elmtown High School. As this writer sees it, such action unaccompanied by any other was a surrender of the responsibility for leadership—a responsibility earlier shunned by the professional educators of Elmtown. This too-typical case is an illustration of the bankruptcy of all those to whom the be-all and end-all of education are the school and what goes on within it.

The successful administrator must become more of a leader in terms of broad educational policy and less of a competent supervisor for his janitor and pur-

chasing agent, more of an interpreter of the function of education in a democracy and the community in which he serves and less of a technician in the making out of reports pleasing to the statistician of the state board of education, more of a leader in building better communities through education and less of an executive secretary. When the Commonwealth Fund criticizes medical schools for neglecting to teach prospective doctors about community life, as it did late in 1951, education might well take notice.

The responsibilities of the school administrator in community relations are not met by joining the Rotary Club and slapping backs. They are not even met by a well-conceived plan of reporting school news and policy for the local papers, or even by involving citizens in formulating school policy and program. They can be met only by the administrator's realizing that no important trend or group in his community is unimportant to education, to his institution; by his knowing the community better than the politician does and knowing how to use that knowledge.

The Developing Program of the Citizenship Education Project

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THE Citizenship Education Project is attempting to introduce into school programs and diffuse among the schools of the country improved teaching methods and a wider variety of instructional materials designed to help pupils become good American citizens. The role of CEP, not a research project but a service project, is to make a great number of resources readily accessible to teachers, and to urge them to use additional resources which are locally available. The kind of school program stimulated by CEP includes the participation of teachers, administrators, pupils, and the general public, both in planning and in carrying out the program.

The resources provided by CEP emphasize the importance of civic skill. Human beings must be trained to discharge their responsibilities in a society such as ours, where governmental policy is continually subjected to test by public opinion. The citizen, individually or through the groups to which he belongs, influences the course of public affairs. This situation is in sharp contrast with that in a dictatorship, where the good citizen is merely one who does what he is told. Under the latter circumstance, citizenship education would be scarcely any problem at all, but in the former

situation, education for citizenship is all-important. In a society whose leaders are responsible to the public a prime responsibility of every citizen is concern for public affairs.

The skills which the good citizen must possess include how to keep one's leaders responsible, how to register approval or protest regarding decisions being made by public representatives, how to make use of one's membership in groups in order that the policies of these groups may reflect the general public good, how to select the best possible representatives, how to choose group and political party membership, how to utilize expert advice in arriving at public decisions, how to become a candidate, and how to discharge the responsibilities of public office. The number of such "how-to" items is almost countless for one who would assume full obligation for the privilege of being a member of a free society.

In this connection it is well to remember that the great democracies and republics of history disappeared because too many of their citizens became indifferent to their own responsibilities in maintaining their freedom. An ever smaller group of leaders secured an ever greater amount of political power until the free society became a despotic or

tyrannical one. This happened in Athens, in Rome, in the Weimar Republic. It can, of course, happen in any society whose citizens are content to "let George do it" or "not get mixed up in politics."

The many "how-to" problems of American citizenship are essentially problems of skill. They are action oriented. Indeed, it is clear from the criterion studies made by CEP's evaluation staff that most people think of the good citizen in terms of what he does, not what he thinks, or says, or knows. It is for this reason that CEP has developed as one of its primary resources for teachers a body of "laboratory practices." These practices are designed to give pupils experience in public affairs.

Although good citizenship is measured in action, sound action derives from knowledge. Therefore, the teaching process which emphasizes practice must be supplemented by a variety of sources of information. All questions must be viewed and analyzed in the light of both opinion and facts if students are to learn sound ways of coming to conclusions. CEP has identified a wide variety of suitable instructional materials and has developed an important planning tool, the Materials Card File, to assist teachers in planning programs in which supplementary materials on all sides of issues will be represented. This File is intended to be a balanced compendium of sources. To say that it represents all sides of all issues is to state the ideal toward which the Project staff is working rather than the present actuality. The File is under constant revision. Efforts are made to include in it books and other documents representative of the complete variety of American opinion.

CEP itself takes no sides on any issue. The Staff does everything in its power to present contrasting opinions on every

issue which has bearing upon citizenship education. Its sole objective is to make available to schools the techniques and materials best designed to help young citizens learn the principles of our way of life and put them into practice.

There is just one bias in CEP—a firm adherence to the premises in the tradition of American liberty. These are the basic ideals which have governed the development of our country for the past one hundred seventy-five years. The problems which face us today will be solved in terms of these premises—if they are solved in a sound fashion—just as the problems of the past have been. These premises derive from basic American documents—the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, major court decisions, basic legislation. They supply a legal definition of the term Americanism. They are as nearly noncontroversial as any list of items bearing upon American citizenship can be.

A good American citizen is a person possessing certain civic skills and certain knowledge which will assist him in performing these skills with wisdom. He is also the possessor of an attitude dedicated to the principles of American liberty. It is these premises which are intended to supply the guiding spirit to any teaching program involving laboratory practices and instructional materials. All the Project's planning materials for teachers are closely interlocked with these.

A primary key to the material resources identified and developed by the Citizenship Education Project are the Planning Tools. These are for the use of teachers who are interested in improving their programs of citizenship education. They are available to those who have secured an adequate orientation to them, usually provided in the five-day planning

workshop put on in cooperation with groups of collaborating schools. The planning tools provide the teacher quick access to suggested laboratory practices and instructional materials, and also provide helps for analyzing these and incorporating them into their work with students. At the present time, helps are available for teachers of social studies, English and American literature, and the natural sciences—particularly biology and general science. During the current year possibilities are being explored in other fields—notably physical education, art, business education, and vocational education.

The CEP staff has conducted an extensive search for instructional materials suitable for use in citizenship. This search has included more than sixty organizations throughout the country and a large number of individuals acquainted with the literature of current affairs. Items identified and digested are included in the Materials Card File. Nevertheless, a number of inadequacies as to both content and simplicity still exist in the materials currently available. Consequently, CEP is preparing a number of items for pupil use. Three of these will come from the press in the next few months: one is a booklet intended to clarify the nature of the premises in the tradition of American liberty and show their application to modern life.

A second item for the use of pupils is intended to show by careful juxtaposition of data the "bread and butter" value of freedom. Freedom is something which we must defend not only because we believe in it, but because it gives us the most of the benefits of the good life.

Many resources useful to citizenship education are difficult to use because they cannot be moved. Colonial Williamsburg, the United Nations, Wash-

ington, D. C., are examples of the kind of resource which can be used only through visitation. It is the hope of CEP that student trips to these locations may be improved educational experiences. Toward this end CEP has been conducting some experiments in collaboration with Colonial Williamsburg, Inc. Four laboratory practices have been developed on a trial basis. In each, the crux of the practice is a visit to Williamsburg. Preliminary tests indicate that the practices are successful in attaining many of the objectives of citizenship education. If further trial proves satisfactory, CEP purposes to experiment in a similar fashion with other locations, such as Washington, D. C., the United Nations, and state capitals.

In addition to the two basic resources for all kinds of teaching—namely, procedures and instructional materials—there is for citizenship education another essential resource. This is the assistance of community leaders, government officials, and other citizens who are the real experts in many aspects of public affairs. So far, teachers in general have been somewhat more reluctant to take advantage of the citizen resources in their communities than they might be. Furthermore, there is strong indication that one of the most helpful adjuncts to a local citizenship program would be a lay advisory committee for citizenship education. What helps could CEP devise which would assist school people in making continuous and effective use of citizen resources? To this question members of the CEP staff are now addressing themselves and have organized a group of citizens to assist them in developing materials and procedures which will arm teachers and administrators in quest of citizen help, especially in carrying out the laboratory practices.

The services to schools provided by CEP are of two kinds: (1) organization and administration of a five-day planning workshop at which representatives from school systems receive an orientation to CEP's materials and work under supervision with CEP planning tools; (2) follow-up help subsequent to the workshop for schools engaged in carrying out a program whose main outlines were blocked out by the schools' representatives at the workshop conference.

There are a number of conditions under which CEP works with schools. The first of these is that some expression of interest must come from the school itself. CEP undertakes no "selling" on its own behalf. Schools which already hold the conviction that considerable improvement can and should be made in their provisions for citizenship education and which are convinced that the laboratory practice approach contained in CEP's planning tools can help them accomplish this—these are the schools with which CEP undertakes collaborative arrangements.

CEP seeks to establish an "organic" relationship with each collaborating school. That is to say, CEP does not work with individual teachers as such, but with school systems. The board of education, the superintendent of schools, the principal, and the supervisory staff must be thoroughly informed regarding CEP, its tools, and its objectives. The administrative and supervisory staffs have an important function in promoting the diffusion of an improved program once a few teachers undertake it.

Although CEP works with school systems rather than with individual teachers as such, it will nevertheless begin with a small number of staff members of schools, with the intention of spreading to others as time goes on. CEP will then

undertake collaboration with a school system, even though the beginning agency of CEP diffusion in that school system is only one teacher, or at most a few.

CEP works with clusters of school systems. Workshops are located at points convenient to a number of participating schools. Twenty or thirty school systems within a commuting radius of one another are easier to work with than the same number of schools scattered throughout the country. This means that for the time being CEP's efforts are concentrated in some regions more than in others. But in the course of time, CEP intends to provide services in a sufficient variety of locations to permit any interested school system to become familiar with the planning tools.

CEP workshops are largely organized through local or regional agencies. State departments of education, school study councils, zones of the Associated Public School Systems, schools of education, and teachers colleges are the kinds of agencies through which CEP reaches clusters of interested schools in different parts of the country. The agency identifies the schools, invites them to the workshop, and makes the necessary arrangements regarding place, date, and space. CEP then staffs and provides the necessary materials for the workshop. Some twenty-two have been held or are scheduled for the present academic year.

For follow-up services, CEP relies upon its own field representatives, regional representatives, and the staffs of such state and regional agencies as departments of education and schools of education. Four full-time persons are at present employed as field representatives. They work out of CEP's offices into any portion of the United States where their services may be needed. They work with

the teachers, administrators, and citizens in collaborating communities and with the staffs of state departments of education and schools of education which are providing follow-up services in their own localities. Regional representatives, employees of CEP, work out of regional offices established at points convenient to clusters of schools.

In addition to materials, notably the CEP planning tools, and the personnel help provided in workshops and follow-up, CEP furnishes collaborating schools with certain supplementary services. As additional cards are developed for the Materials Card File, these are sent on to collaborating teachers who have previously received one of the files. As new booklets of laboratory practice descriptions are published, these are sent on to teachers who are already collaborating. The staff of the Evaluation Division of CEP furnishes assistance in testing and evaluation. A house organ, *CEP News*, is distributed to all collaborating personnel. A supplementary materials aid, *Materials Supplement*, contains brief condensations of magazine articles of the preceding month which may have a bearing upon citizenship education. Both of these are issued monthly during the school year.

The CEP, in introducing and diffusing its resources to schools, follows a pattern which is typical. Numerous researches by Paul R. Mort and his students have demonstrated the major characteristics of this pattern. Initially, the rate of diffusion is slow and the number of schools is small, but the rate of diffusion grad-

ually increases until a large proportion of the schools of the country have embraced the new practice. This pattern is typical whatever the practice in question—whether health inspection, remedial reading, driver training, industrial arts, or libraries in high schools. Presumably the pattern is valid for citizenship education as well.

CEP's initial rate of diffusion was slow, the number of schools small—in fact, nine teachers in eight schools. The rate of diffusion is increasing, the proportion of schools growing—95 school systems, 133 teachers in June, 1951. By the end of the calendar year 1951, the school systems numbered 361, teachers more than 700, with some 20,000 pupils involved in programs stimulated by CEP.

Another characteristic of the typical diffusion pattern is the long time required for the new practice to reach all the schools. Normally, fifty years is required from initial introduction to 100 per cent diffusion. It is the hope and intention of CEP to shorten this time span which, though typical, seems to be unnecessarily long. The services CEP has designed are calculated to do this. The number of collaborating schools to date would suggest that the efforts of CEP may indeed shorten this fifty-year lag.

If CEP is successful in stimulating a diffusion that reaches all American schools in, say, fifteen or twenty years instead of the normal fifty years, it will be the first time so rapid a spread from introduction to complete diffusion has been recorded in American education.

The Reality-Centered School

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THE thesis of this discussion is that the American school should be reality-centered, not subject matter-centered or child-centered. By inference, the subject matter- or child-centered school is unrealistic. The school emphasizing prescribed courses, examinations, grades—all determined by school authorities—is unrealistic since it ignores the “needs,” interests, motives, and capacities of the students. If the school emphasizes the latter, it is unrealistic in that it ignores the “needs,” interests, and values of the community. The school is realistic if it strikes a balance between the “needs” of the child and the “needs” of the community. Such a school is reality-centered. I propose to discuss this type of school.

THE CEMENT OF THE COMMUNITY

Orderly social activity depends upon a series of commonly accepted values. The values represent the goals of a society as well as the means of attaining them. For example, financial success is one of the chief aims of American society. There are several legitimate ways of attaining financial success: through highly remunerative work, through careful saving, and through inheritance. An expert safecracker can obtain money through illegitimate means. If apprehended he is convicted, since there are legal sanctions, supported by the major-

ity of the group, which penalize illegitimate means.

To take another example, freedom of expression, one of our basic beliefs, is protected by the Constitution of the United States. Generally, any interference with that freedom is finally subject to test by the courts.

In our political, social, economic, and moral activities and relations we expect certain responses. We expect, for example, that when we enter into a contract it will be executed. For every contract that is litigated, tens of thousands are performed without recourse to the law. The law does not compel us to fulfill our contractual obligations, but our habitual sense of decency, fairness, and moral obligation leads us to fulfill them. In like manner, we refrain from committing serious crimes not primarily because we fear the law (most people cannot even name more than ten crimes out of the more than three thousand listed in the Penal Code of New York State), but because we behave according to the expectations of the majority which have become our own in the process of growing up.

Orderly social life would be impossible if individuals were permitted to give full expression to their spontaneous needs and follow their peculiar interests. Institutions must provide much of the motivation and control of individual behavior.

ior. This control is made possible by defining people's relationships. Mutual obligations and expectations are defined along functional and structural lines which make up our entire culture or society. Our expectations are determined by the status we have, by the role we play, the prestige attached to the status, the esteem others attach to the role, and by the power we acquire through the role we play and the position we hold. Social interaction, in a word, depends upon a system of statuses. Social relationships involve the recognition and performance of reciprocal obligations.

The social system, however, not only tends to control conflict but also generates it. In our highly competitive society, with its relatively high mobility of social and economic classes, individuals are encouraged by our values to move away from an *ascribed* status or role in order to compete for a different, *achieved* status. Thus our social system is in constant process of achieving a balance between maintaining the expectations and obligations characterizing the status one has, and changing them according to the status one hopes to or does acquire.

This is, in broadest sociological terms, the tradition of American life, a society which wants to preserve its traditional institutions which define and *ascribe* statuses and roles to people while, at the same time, it seeks to encourage them to achieve other statuses and roles.

PRESERVATION OF TRADITION

The chief function of the school (and family) is to transmit the commonly accepted values to which we give allegiance. This safeguards the institutional life of the community and guarantees orderly life. We acquire, and consent to abide by, the norms and expectations of

our society. Through subject matter, the "common core," the school transmits the heritage of our past.

The majority of the professional educator groups in this country on all levels of education believe that a curriculum should include an irreducible minimum of content which should and must be required of all. Thus, every child should be comfortably aware of the kind of physical and natural world we inhabit. He should become increasingly familiar with social studies, so that he can recognize the contemporary institutional and social problems which beset us on all sides. He should be acquainted with the outstanding works of literature, art, and music. He should possess insight into the conflicting ideals and values of our civilization. Above all, he requires the sharp tools of critical analysis to distinguish fact from fancy, evidence from propaganda. In brief, the child must be helped to understand himself and his relation to others and to the complicated world in which we live. This requirement, the preservation and understanding of our traditions and our institutional life, motivates and controls behavior and gives point to the subject-centered schools.

Contemporary civilization, however, differs from every other culture in that we do not take our tradition for granted. We recognize that we possess *a* tradition and that other peoples live according to other traditions. We are the first culture to become anthropologically minded. Indeed, anthropology as a science is less than one hundred years old and is the product of Western Europeans. We are the first civilization to recognize that no tradition is sacred and that *we* decide what our tradition shall be or shall become. In a word, we also want to *change* or to modify our traditions. We support the idea of achieved status. Everyone

should have equal opportunity for life, liberty, and the pursuit, if not the attainment, of happiness.

RESPECT FOR THE INDIVIDUAL

It is significant that the American concept of nationalism does not focus on "Empire," "the Fatherland" (*das Vaterland*), military heroes, or territory (*La Patrie*). Not until some time after our Revolutionary War, in fact not until the early nineteenth century, did we develop our ideal of the "Rights of Man." (This was a rediscovery of the basic concepts of prophetic Judaism stated in secular instead of sacred ideals.)

Psychiatric theory and clinical practice of the past thirty-five years have provided a core of fairly solid evidence from which we have gained considerable knowledge of "the needs" of individuals. These scientific observations *seem* to support basic American political and social ideals. For example, democratic parliamentary procedure, as well as structure, rests on conflict of interests. The executive has to share power with or have discretion limited by the legislature. The legislature, in turn, generally consists of two houses made up of differing parties. Difference of opinion is accepted, welcomed, and protected. Consensus is temporarily arrived at with all parties abiding by the rules. Subsequent dissatisfaction engendered by altered conditions results in new leaders and new laws.

Personality development follows a similar pattern. The individual blob of protoplasm becomes a unique organism which must learn to surrender "the pleasure principle" to "the reality principle." The developing infant soon internalizes the expectations of family and friends. He becomes socialized up to a point. He wants to belong and to feel

secure but he also wants to express his idiomatic personality, to be left alone, to follow his unique bent, to develop his particular capacities, talents, and interests. He wants his own style of living, which must be qualified by his social experiences. He wants to, or he has to, submit to others. He asks or he struggles to be left alone. There are times when he must bend or break. The individual must learn to live with, and in, conflict.

The teacher aware of contemporary developments in mental hygiene, child growth, adolescent needs, and group dynamics recognizes this. The early "progressive schools" (roughly 1910-1925) reacted against the rigidity of the subject matter-oriented school, which sought to make stencilled stereotypes of the children. The children were to follow their interests, to determine their projects. The schools wanted independent, creative spirits to supply the yeast of social change.

During the past twenty-five years "the" progressive school movement has become more conservative, returning to an emphasis on required content, uniform standards, and a greater responsibility in defining requirements of the school.

In recent years also the concept of the child-centered *public* school has appeared in print and, here and there, in practice. The pendulum is again starting its counterswing. An increasing number of educators assert that the point of departure for genuine learning must be where the pupil is. Unless the "need satisfactions" of the students are met, genuine growth will not occur. Hence the vast amount of exploration on "life-adjustment" courses, the concern about "the whole child."

The sympathetic understanding of individual needs is indeed one of the great

contributions of psychiatry, mental hygiene, clinical psychology, and refined social case work and practice.

Each child does possess unique qualities—individual talents, differences in imagination, temperament, or emotional make-up, different powers of observation, ability to abstract or synthesize. We can agree, furthermore, that all learning is, in the last analysis, a private matter. The child, like everyone else, learns precisely what he wills to learn, no more and no less. Motivation can be stimulated but not substituted. He perceives what he wants to perceive, hears what he wants to hear, and rejects or distorts what seems threatening to his present organization. It does not follow, however, that the school should become child-centered.

THE REALITY-CENTERED SCHOOL

The individual, as was indicated above, must be inducted into his society—the family, the school, and later, the broader social system. In order to participate successfully as a member of a community, however narrow or extended, the student must become sensitive to the expectations of others, to the significance of his status and roles as perceived by them, as well as to the demands and expectations associated with their status and power as perceived by them. Associated living inevitably requires these kinds of reciprocal appreciations. Without *commonly shared* values an individual is alienated or institutionalized.

Another way of describing this is to state that an individual's "needs" involve not only his independent need for expression of a spontaneous "self" but also his social needs to share the values of others. Young children in public school are as yet not aware of many of their future social needs any more than a nine-

month-old infant is aware that it needs, for its own physical well-being, a balanced diet. *For his own welfare*, the child needs to be informed about many skills and subjects. The dilemma arises because what he *will* need is not what he feels he *now* needs. Since he learns only what and when he wants to learn, he seems to reach an impasse.

The situation is not hopeless, however, unless the teacher is unskilled. The problem is to create the kind of classroom atmosphere in which the pupil is helped to sense needs still inchoate. As these needs are felt and articulated by him he becomes ego-involved. He participates in his own development. He is willing, because unthreatened and unpressured, to assume responsibility and initiative for his own educational growth. Who of us doesn't enjoy the opportunity for expression of what interests us?

The teacher's greatest responsibility is to assume the role of skillful opposition to evoke the latent social needs only dimly perceived by the child. The teacher assumes the role of an alter ego, representing the social realities which the child senses but does not see. The child cannot assume full responsibility for his growth. Confusion must be narrowed, limits must be defined, needs must be clarified. All of this must be accomplished in specific settings, always keeping in mind that one must remain close to where the child is, not too far ahead but far enough ahead to offer a challenge which is perceived not as a threat but as an opportunity. The skills required in the profession of teaching are probably more delicate than in any other profession and the attitudes more sensitive.

The classroom is not a clinic for group therapy or a factory to produce examination papers and grades which guarantee teachers a non-living wage. The

school is (or should be) a cross section of selected aspects of society where small groups of people with different powers, roles, and statuses are working together and learning how to relate to one another successfully. The classroom is a social system. A social system requires an understanding of the social needs inherent in particular situations. This understanding is gradually acquired as a result of the *kind* of interactions established by the spirit, skill, and knowledge of the leaders (superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers, board members, parents, and children). Each of these may, from time to time, change roles and status and hence acquire different esteem, prestige, and powers. This results in clarifying reciprocal social expectations.

We now turn from technique to content. We have said that social realities, an understanding of the world and the people in it, require students to assimilate subject matter. Subject matter, it should be emphasized, is not necessarily limited to books or speeches or *fixed courses*. All students need subject matter, but we have hardly begun to use our imagination to devise media for helping them obtain it.¹ The uses of television which can be made and probably will be made

in helping the child to translate data stagger the imagination.

New media of presenting data do not exclude the discipline of persistent, diligent effort on the part of children. Once the student, through dramatic, meaningful participation in his own growth, feels and recognizes new interests and needs and is helped by the alert teacher to clarify them, he will want to, he will have to, for his own satisfactions, learn more and explore further. This is self-discipline (the only genuine discipline there is), which is a better guarantee for study and growth than mid-semester warnings or sermonettes.

The issue of subject matter- versus child-centered schools is an unreal choice. The genuine problem is one of helping the student to discover that his needs are not exhausted by his anarchic individuality, that he has his being in group life, that others will make demands upon him as he will expect to make demands upon others, that it will be necessary for *him* to understand many things, and that this requires effort, skill, knowledge, respect, humility, and wonder. The social world is in the classroom. The understanding teacher, mindful of the different kinds of students, helps them to discover its nature and hence to rediscover their own.

¹ One of our leading schools of social work presents the subject matter of "psychology" through the works of D. H. Lawrence, James Joyce, Dostoevsky, and other writers. A well-known college presents the subject matter of social studies through a series of over thirty films. Collateral readings are novels. The highly

ambitious student is given a set of less lugubrious journal articles, from which he selects what he likes.

Antioch, Sarah Lawrence, Bennington, Black Mountain, and Goddard Colleges, to mention a few, do not confuse subject matter with courses.

Educating the Handicapped for Literacy and Citizenship

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ACCORDING to the latest estimates, 15 per cent of all children in this country are handicapped by mental defects, physical disabilities, or emotional and behavioral disturbances. Along with the birth-rate rise of the past ten years, there has been a corresponding increase in the number of handicapped children—at present some four million of school age alone. Every teacher may expect to find one or more of them in any typical classroom.

Because of the limitations placed on these children by their handicaps, the needs for special kinds of educational training are much greater than is the case with the normal pupils. However, these less fortunate children must be cared for largely in regular classes with such supplementation as the better schools can provide.

Traditional methods of giving special attention to the handicapped leave much to be desired. For the most part the education of these children has been confined to bare essentials of the conventional school curriculum, with too little appreciation of the handicapped child's fuller needs and his total reactions both as a school learner and as a developing person. In many cases, so much attention has been given to the child's special defect that he has failed to obtain the wider

range of experience so essential for well-rounded childhood and preparation for adult life.

The slow learner whose schooling is limited to narrow drill on the minimum skills, presented in formal, isolated fashion has little time for broader problem solving more in line with the things he must do as a responsible citizen, limited though his adult role may be. The deaf child, for example, needs far more than speech training if he is to become a good citizen, a contributing member of a family, a worker in his community, associating with others in daily living. The behavior-problem child receives play therapy after his difficulty has become deep-seated, whereas a judicious admixture of free play in his early school life might have averted the emotional upsets which later require treatment.

The goals in educating these children are the same as those for other children, although the ways of achieving them are unquestionably different. These boys and girls will some day be adults, many of them in direct contact with normal people in everyday life and needing to make their way in the world. For this reason more attention should be given during the formative childhood years to training them for their eventual roles as citizens—training them to shoulder responsibility,

to cooperate with those in authority, to associate with and help others, to plan a piece of work and carry it through, to use the skills of communication and social living effectively, to live healthfully, and to use spare time to good advantage for recreation and inner satisfaction.

These children need to learn the practical things that will be useful to them in daily living and will also contribute to their future happiness as citizens and workers.

Literacy is essential if these children are to enjoy a measure of freedom despite their handicaps. Plans for teaching and training the handicapped must take into account their assets and limitations as determined by diagnostic and prognostic studies. On what level does this child now function? What are his chief assets? As a new teacher put it, "I am sure that there is some special treasure hidden in each one of these children though sometimes it is difficult to locate."

Some suggested methods for discovering this "treasure" are:

Draw out the latent powers of each child, capitalizing on his abilities for guidance of his learning, for his own self-education.

Marshal all the child's resources, limited as these may be.

Treat the child as a whole instead of concentrating on his handicap.

Do not make so much allowance for the handicapped child's special deficiencies that his need for a broader type of training and experience is overlooked.

Stress the practical in training the handicapped. Academic learning that has little bearing on the handicapped child's purposes or that is beyond the range of his understanding should have no place in his instruction.

Specialists and teachers who subscribe to these broader educational goals for the

handicapped show readiness for making curricular modifications that will achieve both broad and practical objectives.

If the stage is properly set so that the children's interests are fully challenged and they have a keen desire to learn, they will make the effort that results in problem solving, memorizing and applying facts; they will show improvement in motor coordination and achieve a host of other learnings. The modern school has more confidence than traditional teaching had in the handicapped child's capacity to help educate himself, provided he is confronted with stimulating problems to solve and has a resourceful teacher to guide his learning.

ADVANTAGES OF UNIFIED LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The present-day emphasis on unified, problem-centered teaching is a promising approach to educating the handicapped.¹ In unified teaching, timely themes and problems become the focus of study without an attempt to fit these central themes into conventional school subject categories; then the subject areas of social studies, science, health, literature, the arts, and the 3 R's that have a bearing on these study themes are brought in and developed in conjunction with them. Problems are selected for study partly in terms of the breadth of learning opportunity they afford in subject matter and skills areas.

Unified teaching and curriculum organization provide for a natural kind of learning that is consistent with the learning acquired in life outside the school. It places the chief emphasis on purposeful problem-solving and learning with full

¹ Gertrude H. Hildreth, *Child Growth Through Education*. Ronald Press, New York, 1948.

understanding. All the studies undertaken are geared to the child mind at various stages of development; they are consistent with the maturation of these children in concepts, interests, and goals. Many of the ideas developed in class come from the children themselves. Through working on problems of immediate concern to them these handicapped children gain new understandings and broader insights regarding themselves and their world. A piecemeal, compartmentalized approach to learning skills and subject matter is avoided. In unified teaching, interrelationships among content areas and the skills are capitalized. Content studies cannot progress without employing skills. In turn, learning the skills of reading, arithmetic, and language expression proceeds best in the meaningful setting the content studies provide.

Slow learners are not forced to synthesize many different elements to arrive at meanings. Instead, lesson learning begins with meaningful experiences. For example, young children learn about the calendar and the weather, the progression of days through the week, of months through the year. "Today is sunny. It is a warm day. It is a beautiful day. Today is Wednesday. Yesterday was Tuesday, tomorrow will be Thursday," and so on. Talking, reading, and writing about these simple everyday matters build basic concepts for effective living.

A post office project for seven- and eight-year-olds (or even older children who are mentally slow) not only teaches concepts of civics and social studies but contributes at the same time to facility in oral and written expression, reading, and arithmetic.

A food unit developed for children in primary grades or immature learners also contributes to learning about health; as the children consider the value of milk

for health and check the amount of milk they drink daily. But this lesson becomes, in turn, an arithmetic lesson, as the teacher demonstrates quarts and pints, cups and glasses, and shows the children how to write the required numbers, 1, 3, 4, as the case may be. Then there are records to be written and later to be read. Spelling and handwriting also get a workout. Some of the learning is direct, some of it results incidentally in response to a live project which engages the children's full interest.

One class of slow learners worked on a clothing project which developed into a full-fledged storekeeping unit. The children built a store in their classroom, learned how to make sales, and at the same time gained in language expression and arithmetic competence through this experience.

In unified teaching there is definite planning so that the largest possible amount of natural, incidental, concomitant learning can take place. In a Thanksgiving unit the pupils not only learn about the origins of a national tradition but, in the course of making cranberry sauce for their afternoon party, they learn about foods and health, temperature, cooking, reading numbers, economic competence in making grocery purchases, even about safety.

In this sort of problem-centered teaching there is less dependence on textbook learning as an objective of classroom instruction; a wide range of instructional resources is required for full development of study themes. In their quest for information the children do a kind of elementary research instead of stereotyped lesson learning.

Some of the forms of learning and experiencing that hold a central place in unified, problem-centered teaching are the following:

Discussion, questioning, and exchange of experiences

Learning from others

Small group planning of work projects with teacher guidance

Making choices of activities and carrying on work in chosen area

Searching out information, summarizing facts learned, and reporting on the information learned

Group reporting and recording of experiences

Dramatization and dramatic play

Free play, group recreation, sports, and folk dancing

Individual study for drill purposes

Participation in arts and crafts, and musical experiences

Other features of unified teaching that are of special advantage in the education of handicapped children are discussed below.

The flexibility provided in the program makes it possible to adapt instruction to the individual pupil's particular handicap. Every child is helped to discover something that he can do successfully. His latent resources for learning and creating are brought out to the fullest possible degree.

The unified program provides a setting for the exercise of pupil initiative, together with opportunity for self-selection of work and study projects in line with the child's special needs and interests and taking into account his special defects. Too often, because of the solicitude shown by adults toward these children, their resources for self-help remain undeveloped. The handicapped child, like the normal one, needs to develop the kind of self-discipline that results when children are given responsibility for their actions, when they perceive goals toward which they are striving, when they de-

velop the insights, the understandings, that suggest the proper courses of action in the many diverse situations that confront them.

With unified teaching there can be a closer tie between school life and life outside of school because there is more similarity in the learning that goes on within and outside school walls, and because the fullest development of study themes is impossible without the richer experiencing that occurs through outside contacts.

There is a flexible schedule which allows more consecutive time for work on projects and permits the introduction of matters which are of concern to the class. However, flexibility in program scheduling does not eliminate all regularity in scheduling which is essential for the establishment of good work habits and the efficient operation of a school.

Unified, problem-centered teaching makes fuller experiencing in the area of aesthetics possible because the more flexible schedule provides longer periods for creative work in the arts and crafts, and because virtually all the study themes undertaken can be enriched through art experiences. Arts and crafts provide a natural accompaniment to unit study themes; in fact, the development of such a theme as "Thanksgiving," "Clothing," or "At the Circus" would fall flat without the enrichment provided by full expression in the arts.

Like other children, the handicapped need aesthetic experiences in childhood both for the satisfying emotional outlets that expression in the arts affords and to offset feelings of inferiority that may arise because of a handicap. Then, too, early training in the arts may in some cases actually lead to a vocational success later on. Often these handicapped children prove to be highly gifted in creative

achievements if only the way is opened to them through guidance and training.

Flexible seating arrangements, together with the proper equipment for carrying on group and individual projects of wide scope, make possible richer school experiencing for the handicapped at the same time that they make adjustments to the children's particular handicaps possible. A workshop atmosphere becomes established in these classrooms in contrast to the "sitting still with eyes front" regimentation imposed on children by stationary seats and dictatorial methods.

Freedom and discipline, too often looked upon as contrasting concepts in child behavior and management, become united in a classroom where children are occupied with workshop projects. Freedom of movement and expression is permissible so long as it does not interfere with regulations that are needed when a number of individuals share the same space and equipment.

These handicapped children, who tend to be overprotected at home, who have a short span of attention, and who have often been deprived of normal outlets for play life, need the proper space and equipment for free play. They should be allowed to enjoy sports and recreation to the limit of their capacities. A happy play life creates feelings of security and builds stability in social living which a handicapped child might otherwise lack.

The unified program is particularly advantageous for the handicapped because it provides in a more flexible way than conventional teaching for the pupils' particular handicaps. A flexible program provides for easier adjustment during the day to the needs of the handicapped for rest and recreation, as well as for desk and table activities. In lesson assignments the special limitations of individual children can be taken into ac-

count. With the pupil-initiated studies of unit teaching, children are in a position to help one another more. The unit themes and projects lend themselves to development through longer or shorter working periods as the pupil's individual needs require. The materials of instruction can be more readily adapted to the special needs of the deaf, the visually handicapped, the mentally slow, the speech handicapped, and the crippled than is the case in conventional teaching.

PLACE OF THE THREE R'S IN TRAINING HANDICAPPED

For children with multiple handicaps, especially the mentally slow, the goals in teaching communication and number skills must be both simple and practical. Parents of the handicapped usually show considerable anxiety about the child's ability to acquire skills of reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic—an attitude which leads some teachers to concentrate on the teaching of these skills to the exclusion of other essentials that have been mentioned. Meaningless memory work is imposed to force learning that is premature, impractical, or quite beyond the child's grasp.

Teaching the skills of literacy to the handicapped will be more successful if the teacher at all times considers the meaning for the pupil of the facts to be learned and then makes it possible for him to learn the new facts in a meaningful setting. The results of linking the teaching of these skills with the problem-solving situations to which they apply make sense to the children. The learning is better retained and it can actually be applied when the children are called upon to read, write, spell, or solve number problems.

Within recent years the teaching of language arts has been virtually revolu-

tionized, especially in the primary grades, through relating language learning, including reading, to children's current experiences instead of teaching formal lessons based on exercises in standardized materials. For example, recording of the daily program on the blackboard, with the writing being done at first by the teacher, gives practice in functional reading.

Reading for full literacy must be problem-centered and lead to problem solving with purposeful goals related to definite outcomes, giving pleasure and satisfaction to the learner in terms of what he knows and understands. In an Indian unit the pupil learns about the foods the Indians shared with the white man for Thanksgiving. A list is put on the board as the result of class discussion. The list is copied in notebooks together with the recipe for cranberry sauce. Blackboard and chart text (or script text) prepared by the teacher in large-sized manuscript writing, using the children's own current oral vocabulary, brings the text to be read well within their range of experience and understanding.

For primary tots or slow learners the text may be:

It is winter.

It is snowing today.

We will make a snowman.

Teaching the skills of oral and written expression in all its phases relates to and grows out of broad study themes, for example, "Keeping Store" in second grade, "The Weather" in fourth grade, "How Man Learned to Tell Time," "Foods for Health" or "Making a Newspaper" in the upper grades. Strange as it

seems, children who learn the skills of communication in this way make better progress than those who are given intensive but isolated drill on the three R's.

The mentally slow pupil, the speech defective, the deaf need meaningful language experiences, something real to say or write in contrast to an overdose of formal training in isolated speech sounds. When suitable adjustments are made to these children's handicaps, the youngsters find that learning and using the three R's is not only fun but genuinely rewarding as well.

In summary, the handicapped children who are enrolled in our schools need normal types of school experiences that are slanted toward the practical so that they can develop maximum competence, considering their handicaps. The unified, problem-centered approach to teaching in the elementary school years has many special advantages for the handicapped, whether they are grouped in special classes or remain in regular class groups with normal children. Unified teaching is particularly advantageous because it provides maximum opportunity for learning through practical problem solving, for experiential learning of the three R's, and for enrichment of learning through dramatics and aesthetics. The flexible features of unified teaching provide for ready adjustment to the special limitations of the handicapped.

Wherever the methods described herein have been applied in teaching the handicapped there is evidence that the children can share more fully in normal living and in some instances even surmount the difficulties their handicaps have imposed upon them.

The Community College and the World Community

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THE need for programs of education that may aid Americans in meeting the problems of world living and world leadership becomes daily more pressing. Educational leaders are at work developing philosophies and studies in the area of world-community living. Looming large in this development is the potential of the community college. Here is an institution which may well become a vital force in the race between education and catastrophe.

Americans now live in a world community. This incontrovertible fact has been forced upon us by the technologies of communication and transportation, the interrelatedness of world economics and politics, and the global nature of modern warfare. No American is unaffected by political upheaval in Egypt, economic crisis in Iran, or internecine strife in Kashmir; indeed, the effect upon him of such events is felt in every facet of life—from tax rates to gasoline costs to the quality of his golf balls. There is no choice—the world is a community and America is a part of it.

There is a choice, however, as to the *kind* of world community in which men shall live. It may be one in which we continue to drift, unguided, in geographical and technological closeness, but separated by international rancor. Possibly

armed truce, distrust, hate, and eventual catastrophe will be the lot of future generations as of past.

The alternative—a united struggle toward understanding and peace—remains open. Admittedly the possibility of its success seems remote, but has not man's greatest strength been achieved through faith in the power of inquiring minds, free expression, and the ultimate triumph of reason over force? Is it totally hopeless, then, for men free in spirit to strive for a measure of understanding of the viewpoints of other men, to work toward a unity of purpose with others of the world community in dealing with the overriding problems of war and peace, to seek, in the psychologist's term, "empathy" with the needs, hopes, motives, and fears of men everywhere? Is a community college which tries to develop a program based on tolerance, mutual respect, and international responsibility wasting time and effort? To reply that schemes for realizing such ideals have been tried and have failed is to beg the question. Did the first automobile run smoothly? Human engineering calls for the same resoluteness, tenacity, perseverance, and faith in success that the most complex sort of mechanical engineering requires.

Education of every kind—formal and

informal, institutional and personal, from kindergarten through the graduate school—must be involved if a program planned to develop citizens for world-community living is to have any hope of success. The community college is uniquely suited to play a part. In the first place, it undertakes as its primary task to tap the great numbers of Americans for whom higher education in any form is presently unavailable. Young people for whom high school graduation has been an educational dead end, those who must contribute to family and self-support, and those who have been unsuccessful in competition for the woefully inadequate scholarship funds available in American colleges—all are potential students in the community college. So too are many thousands of adults who realize their educational inadequacies and seek opportunity to rectify them. Among such Americans will be many who can make important contributions to knowledge and understanding of other parts of the world community. Recent immigrants to this country, veterans who have served overseas, former displaced persons who are starting new lives—any or all are likely to be represented in a community college and to provide valuable resources for learning about the world. Located wherever a need exists for inexpensive, publicly supported institutions geared to meet the educational needs—general, technical, or recreational—of communities of whatever size, the community college as a developing instrument of democracy can make practical the implementation of the concept of education for world-community living on the widespread scale necessary for rapid social change.

Second, many of the students who enroll in community colleges will be recent high school graduates, interested in voca-

tional, technical, or general education to aid them in doing better work at semi-skilled, skilled, or semiprofessional jobs. Still others in the same age range will be taking the first two years of college study in local institutions with the expectation of transferring to the upper divisions of colleges or universities. These young people of seventeen or eighteen to twenty provide the most potent resource of future community strength with which educators have yet worked. Their minds are young and flexible, yet capable of dealing with the tough problems and situations which face adults. They are, psychologists emphasize, in the final stages of the upward spurt of intellectual development typical of adolescence, but which in the twenties appears to level off toward the point where intelligence increases much more slowly. Thus the community college offers to educators what may be a final opportunity to deal with minds still growing and developing rapidly, still plastic yet tough and strong enough to deal with reality of whatever kind.

Studies in the area of comparative cultures and cultural anthropology might offer real challenges, particularly if supplemented with opportunities for short periods of concentrated study abroad, along the lines pioneered by Earlham College and the Universities of Maryland, Minnesota, and Kansas City. The use of seminars and discussions in which students have the opportunity to meet and talk with representatives of other cultures is appropriate at this age level. Visiting scholars and students, members of the UN secretariat, and widely traveled Americans are possible resources for such activities. Model international conferences and United Nations meetings provide mature students with opportunities to study and discuss world problems

from points of view other than their own or their nation's. The study and discussion of films from various cultures are particularly effective devices when used with discrimination and careful preparation. The International Film Forum of Teachers College, Columbia, might be effectively adapted to community-college use. Whatever the details of program, the community college is in a position to institute a strong, realistic, dynamic movement for world-community living which will be appropriately challenging to a student body at the best possible age to profit by it.

In the third place, an integral part of the community-college concept is the inclusion of programs of adult education, the primary purpose of which is to awaken in men and women a realization of the possibilities for personality growth and personal responsibility for the affairs of the community. The community may be local, regional, national, or world-wide in scope. Ideally, it will be all of these. Projects for learning at this level will be most effective if they are practical activities which will capture the imagination, and at which students will work as participants in community life. Programs in which students may learn to understand the dynamics of groups through participation in community-planning councils, settlement houses, playgrounds, and the like, studies in the development of attitudes and of one's own attitudes, examination of the human relations of the community as part of intergroup relations studies, and consideration of interrelationships which tie the locality to the larger community are possible approaches to adult education for world-community living. World-mindedness is basically the acceptance of other people, whether similar or different, and the ability to live with them in

mutual respect. This concept opens a challenging vista to teachers and students in adult education at the community-college level.

Fourth, the community college by its very nature and concept is dedicated to the study and service of community needs. It is important to deal with problems of the local community; education, to be effective, must begin where students are, and community study begins at the local level. But there still remain the resources for expanding the study to fit the larger scene. There are available to the community college many resources which have never been tapped by any international education program. Nearly every community boasts at least one businessman, lawyer, or physician who has studied abroad. American teachers by the thousands have swarmed overseas in recent years. Has any community used to the fullest the experiences of these citizens? Foreign governments and business firms maintain offices of some sort in most large cities; officials can be brought to smaller localities quite inexpensively. There are this year some 40,000 foreign scholars and students—citizens of the world community—in the United States. More come each year. They are in colleges all across the land. Why should there not be more of them in community colleges, whether as regular students or as guests come to meet Americans, to discuss on the community level common problems and differing points of view? Many a student—and instructor too—has been stimulated by the presence of a foreign student in class or dormitory to learn more about other lands and peoples. How better than through personal contact can individuals relate themselves to one another and to the world? Where can it be done better than in the true *community* college?

Finally, the community college is uniquely suited to educate for world-community living because it is a new and dynamic force on the educational scene. It is not bound by the demands of tradition, or hamstrung by devotion to an established curriculum, or held back by fear of antagonizing wealthy donors. It is free to explore, experiment, pioneer. Indeed those are its functions. It can tear down the old, try out the new, revise them both if necessary. There need be no formal courses of study, no traditional systems of prerequisites, no iron-clad requirements of course sequences to hamper the institution, the teacher, or the student seeking better ways to meet the growing, shifting educational needs and opportunities of a complex, changing world. Change may be met with change, new needs with new ideas, in an institution designed specifically to supply the educational needs of a world and a community rapidly changing.

If the choice of this generation is to work for the goal of a world community, for peace and freedom, then we must plan carefully the educational program which will help implement the decision. Knowledge of the world—of places, things, and people—is one foundation stone of international understanding. It is in this area of factual information that American education is perhaps best equipped to work at present, and the contribution of conventional institutions of learning can be of tremendous importance. But they cannot do the whole job.

Another foundation stone is knowledge about the determinants of human conduct which psychologists the world over have sought throughout human his-

tory, and which only in recent times has become available to the layman. The growing mental hygiene movement in schools offers hope that a beginning is being made in the dissemination of information about men's interrelationships. Much remains to be done. It has long been recognized by psychiatrists that understanding of others can come only as the individual understands himself. Study in the social and behavior sciences can aid men here. Psychology as it enables the individual to relate his concept of himself to the world around him, sociology as it provides a picture of the infinite varieties of experiences and modes of life of men—these and kindred disciplines are the bases of knowledge about men.

But providing knowledge is only part of the job which education is called upon to do. To educate is to effect change. Knowledge in itself cannot bring about the kind of world community for which the best in man aspires. For this task, education must involve the whole personality of each student—the emotions as well as the intellect, the spirit as well as the mind. Only as it does so will the student truly change. And only as individuals change can the world change.

Because it is still young and vigorous and unfettered, because it offers a last opportunity to reach millions at the peak of their educability, and because it is intimately bound up with the needs and resources of local communities, the community college is in a position which qualifies it to accept the challenge of the future, to plan and teach and build for a new and better community—a world community of men at peace.

Current Staff Publications

COMPETITIVE SPORTS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES, by *Harry A. Scott*. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1951.

Here is a volume long and sorely needed in educational libraries—a thorough and scholarly treatise upon sports and their place in educational thinking and practice. Dr. Harry Scott, formerly director of physical education at The University of Oregon, Rice Institute, and Brooklyn College, and now a professor at Teachers College, Columbia, has brought to this work an experience as varied as that of anyone in America and has added the priceless ingredients of thought and direction, which are so sadly lacking in the considerations given to sports administration today.

Probably no other facet of American education has been treated so shabbily as competitive sports. Suspect from the beginning, sports have never been accepted by the formidable coterie of intellectual “brass” who persist in their fragmentary view of man and thus stubbornly refuse to conceive of education as having any other function than cultivation of the intellect. There was no place in the Harvard Report on Liberal Education [*sic*] for man’s whole or total development. There are not a hundred college administrators in America who see clearly and firmly that sports can be a valuable part of one’s education, that physical education is a part (and an indispensable one) of total development. As a result of this neglect, school and college athletics, mainly college, are dominated by the news-worthy crowd of earnest entrepreneurs and opportunists who are ranked as professors at home but who have not, for the most part, spent five minutes in attaining that status by means of scholarly application to

the facts and principles of their profession.

Scott’s book is a must on the reading list of all who would understand the complex of purposes and practices which is sports in education today. He makes out of sports something besides a carnival or another source of income. In this reviewer’s opinion, his research and its documentation are more careful than anyone else has ever done. His breadth of interest is attested by the chapters on history and heritage, finances and facilities, sports for women, personnel, organization, and a significant chapter on their relation to educational programs.

The book was written for textbook use in professional classes in physical education and serves admirably in that respect, but it ought to be read also by every principal, superintendent, college dean, president, and public relations officer in the country.

DELBERT OBERTEUFFER
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PRINCIPLES OF RECREATION, by *John L. Hutchinson*. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1951.

An analysis of current trends in American life reveals the emergence of recreation as a major social force. This recognition implies conclusions concerning the role of leisure and the need for the organization of programs of activities to fill leisure time. One of these conclusions is that recreation, as a relatively young profession, should assume responsibility for establishing, as other professions have done, a sound and broad foundation. Part and parcel of this foundation is the need for setting forth valid principles. These principles must be

based on the meaning and objectives of recreation itself and the social and cultural milieu in which it operates. Hutchinson has attempted to do this in his book *Principles of Recreation*. This is the first book on principles of recreation and fulfills a need in this area.

The author develops two assumptions: one, that the base for recreation should be public authority; two, that the full development of recreation depends upon the degree to which the efforts of all agencies concerned with recreation, public or private, can be coordinated. From this vantage point, he discusses how public recreation agencies can move to provide the best possible community recreation service. Four areas of principles are developed as guides to measurement of the level of attainment of the large objectives of recreation. This discussion provides the reader with a fund of information concerning recreation.

The book is organized into four parts. Part I, "The Foundation of Recreation," defines recreation and its objectives, and traces the development of recreation in the United States with special emphasis on the economic and social aspects. Part II, "The Status of Public Recreation," gives an overview of the extent of municipal, state, federal, and school supported recreation services and analyzes the potential future development in these areas. Part III, "The Principles of Recreation Applied," sets forth functional principles for recreation in the areas of program, leadership methodology, administration, and evaluation with accompanying discussions and levels of attainment provided for self-analysis. Part IV, "The Realization of a Community Recreation Concept," develops a method for organizing community recreation efforts and presents an organizational plan.

Recreation draws its strength and life from many sources. Like many other newly emerging areas, its own body of professional knowledge is still meager. There remains the task of bringing into focus for recreation leaders everywhere applied principles from such vital allied fields as educa-

tion, sociology, social welfare, psychology, and physiology, and of further developing those areas that are specific and peculiar to recreation itself.

This book represents another and important milestone in the road ahead for recreation. Certainly any person in the field of recreation will wish to utilize this first excellent drawing together and formulation of important principles in his profession.

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ADMINISTRATION FOR ADAPTABILITY,* by
Donald H. Ross and Others. Metropolitan School Study Council, 525
West 120th Street, New York, 1951.

During the past two years, through the good offices of the Metropolitan School Study Council, it has been possible to abstract the most pertinent points of the seventy-three studies of the adaptability of school systems and of the adaptation processes as they operate in school systems. Some fifty of these studies are Ph. D. dissertations or Ed.D. projects. Many of the seventy-three were never published; others were published and are now out of print. The abstract of materials systematically organized by Dr. Ross has reduced some 9,000 pages of material to approximately 700. The resulting source book has been published in mimeographed form by the Metropolitan School Study Council. For the first time a student of school administration can now get an over-all view of these studies and appraise their implications for the structure and ongoing operation of schools.

*Obtainable from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. \$10.80 for the set of four, or \$3.60 per volume and \$1.50 for the Supplement. Vol. I, "Public Understanding of Schools and their Power"; Vol. II, "The Agencies and Processes of Change in Schools"; Vol. III, "Conditioners of Change in the School Setting"; and Supplement to Volume III, Appendices to the Series.

Doctor of Education Project Reports

JULIUS J. HUBLER. A Plan for the Essentials of Industrial Arts Design Courses at the New York State College for Teachers at Buffalo.*

The purpose of this study is to develop a plan for the course sequence, Essentials of Industrial Arts Design, offered by the Art Education Division for the Industrial Arts Division of the State University of New York, New York State College for Teachers at Buffalo.

The focus is on developing a clearly defined and educationally valid course philosophy, structure, and procedure. Creative experiences in design and appropriate course procedures are developed by utilizing the total setting and important developments in art, industrial arts, and general education. The report describes the evolution of a plan from the initial study of the student and the situation, through the determination and implementation of course experiences and procedures, to the student evaluations.

Statement of the Problem. The conditions necessitating the development of a new plan for the course are described. The problem is resolved and the major concepts employed in developing the plan are outlined.

Need for the Plan. The need for creative design experiences in the industrial arts is discussed, and recognized contribu-

tions to the problem are treated. Previous approaches to the course are appraised. A critical evaluation of industrial arts philosophy, structure, and procedure is made and implications for the plan are outlined.

Factors Affecting the Plan. The total setting is described and salient features affecting course philosophy, structure, and procedure are presented. Limitations to the plan are identified. Philosophical aspects of design, craftsmanship, and creative experience in industrial arts education are discussed. Major movements in art, industrial arts, and education which have affected the plan are surveyed.

Procedures to Be Followed. The bases for course procedures are described in terms of their contribution to the development of specific procedures and the areas of activity. The nature of the key concept is discussed. An over-all view of procedures growing out of the need for the course and determined by the setting and the student is included.

Outline of the Course Plan. The format of the plan in operation is presented. The introductory period of the course is described. The nature of the areas of activity is discussed. Their relationship to the student, the procedures, and the total program is detailed. The section treats the complete development of the ten areas of activity.

Evaluation. The procedures used for securing information are appraised. Major organizational concepts are evaluated. A summary of student and faculty evaluations of the plan concludes the section.

The Appendix presents original copies of student orientation forms and other course materials, the full texts of student and faculty evaluations of the course plan, and a bibliography.

*The manuscripts of the Doctor of Education Project Reports reviewed in *The Record* are on file in the Library of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Because of space limitations it is not possible to publish the digests of all the Reports. The ones printed here, however, represent a variety of areas. A complete list of authors and titles of the Reports is published annually in *The Record*.

WILFRED C. WOLFFER. Obsolete and Substandard Public School Buildings in New York State.*

New York State, like other states throughout the country, is faced with the problem of deciding what to do with substandard and obsolescent public school buildings.

In New York State there are nearly 3,400 school districts, housing and educating almost 2 million pupils in approximately 6,000 public school buildings. Most public school buildings erected fifty to seventy-five years ago have reached the point where extensive rehabilitation or abandonment is essential for the health and safety of children.

The purpose of this study is twofold: (1) to develop criteria for identifying obsolete and substandard public school buildings in New York State; (2) to develop and recommend to the New York State Commission on School Buildings, procedures for dealing with such situations.

The methods used were as follows:

1. A letter and questionnaire were sent to the forty-eight state education departments in an effort to determine the methods and practices used by each in dealing with the problem.

2. A similar letter and questionnaire were sent to twenty-four large school districts and ten selected small school districts to determine the methods they used. These districts were selected on the basis of having school building problems similar to those of the school systems in New York State.

3. A thorough study was made of all the available literature dealing with the subjects of inspection, rehabilitation, condemnation, and abandonment of public school buildings.

4. Selected architects, engineers, school building and planning specialists, educational consultants, and other persons who have had experience with this problem were contacted through personal interview and correspondence. The purpose of this research was to gain a broad view of the opinions and practices of persons working directly with the problem.

5. An analysis was made of school building scores from standardized rating forms in an attempt to determine whether any reliable patterns of deficiency exist for school buildings of the same score range.

6. A thorough study was made of the age of public school buildings in New York State.

7. A section on unit costs was developed by the writer working in conjunction with a leading architect from the New York metropolitan area.

8. A set of standards for public school building modernization was developed to be used by communities as a guide.

The study shows that most states do not have a clear-cut plan for determining which buildings are substandard or obsolete.

Age was found to be an important characteristic of substandard and obsolescent public school buildings. An analysis of 213 public school buildings showed that 83 per cent, fifty years old or over, scored 450 points or less on a 1000-point scale.

It is recommended that all public school buildings in New York State be categorized into three major classifications—satisfactory, fair, and unsatisfactory—in order to determine the extent of major rehabilitation or replacement needs.

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ELWOOD LEWIS PRESTWOOD. Desirable School Board Practices.*

The writer's major purpose in the project was to secure descriptions of desirable school board practices being used by some of the outstanding boards of education throughout the United States.

After reading extensively in the literature dealing with school boards and their duties and after discussing desirable practices with school board members, school superintendents, and professors of educational administration, the writer divided the areas of board action into ten categories. For each classification he chose one practice or a set of related practices and wrote descriptions of them to serve as guides to anyone willing to describe practices being used by his

board. After each sample description, space was allowed for writing in an answer to the request for descriptions of procedures being followed by the board of education completing the "School Board Practices Guide."

The effectiveness of the free-response questionnaire was tested at a special meeting of the 1950 Teachers College School Board Institute. The presidents of thirty boards of education and their superintendents analyzed the Guide and used it in reporting descriptions of their own practices. Seventeen of the boards submitted completed Guides.

After the effectiveness of the Guide as an instrument for securing descriptions of desirable school board practices had been determined, 78 professors of educational administration, the 48 state superintendents of public instruction, and an executive officer of each of the 39 state school board associations were asked to recommend the boards of education that they considered outstanding. Thirty-three professors, 43 of the state departments of education and 21 of the state school board associations recommended a total of 493 school boards, with at least four named for each state.

The Guide was mailed to the recommended boards. Two hundred sixty-eight of them submitted descriptions of their practices in response to the requests, with at least one set of descriptions coming from each state. The project report is based upon these replies and the 17 submitted by the boards represented at the special School Board Institute meeting.

The two hundred eighty-five boards reported a wealth of worth-while practices dealing with helping new board members become acquainted with their work, learning what good schools are like, securing information about the schools under a board's direction, keeping in touch with the community, financing good schools, securing and maintaining good buildings, selecting a competent superintendent, using the experience of the superintendent, developing good school staffs, and evaluating the work of the schools.

PAUL L. JOHNSON. Community College Education: A Book of Readings.*

As the basis for the content and organization of this book of readings, problems and issues in community college education were analyzed by surveying the literature. The problem areas thus determined provided the tentative plan of organization. As the compiling and evaluating of selections proceeded, the availability of materials and their interrelationships made feasible the final organization into six chapters: Understanding the Composite Nature and Purposes of the Community College; Setting Up and Directing Community Colleges; Strengthening Faculty Personnel and Improving the Instructional Program; Handling Student Personnel Work and Student Activities; Making Curriculums Functional; and Cooperating for the Improvement of Community Life.

From a nucleus of numerous existing bibliographies, a composite file was prepared and titles were added to it from numerous other sources, including current indexes and book announcements. The procedure was generally from the recent to the less recent. The comparative newness of the community college accounts for the fact that nearly all of the selections chosen were written within the last decade.

The use of marginal-punched cards made possible a single file for alphabetical bibliographic data, subject-indexed notes, and a rough rating scheme. A scale from 5 to 1 was used to indicate general merit as assessed at first reading, a device which served to reduce the subjectivity of the evaluations. On a given topic the articles rating highest were reviewed and compared in the final selection for inclusion. The primary consideration for each reading was its soundness and significance in pointing up issues or in answering questions considered important by many contributors to the literature. A secondary consideration was general interest to prospective readers. For each group of readings, criteria were a relatively complete coverage of the particular topic within the

limits of availability of material and a balance in points of view and emphases.

For suggestions concerning pattern of organization and methods of achieving continuity and coherence, many books of readings on various subjects were examined. From ideas thus gleaned and from the nature of the material compiled, it was decided to include on the title page of each chapter some key questions to arouse interest and stimulate thought, and at the end of each chapter a brief summary of the main currents of thought. To introduce each topical section within chapters, an overview was written, providing a somewhat systematic discussion of the topic, additional quotations from sources that seemed unsuitable for inclusion as complete readings, and linkage of the reproduced selections to the general treatment of the topic. To reduce the duplication of ideas in the sequence of the book and to conserve space for presenting greater variety of readings, some abridgments were made of lengthy articles.

Designed primarily for present and prospective teachers and administrators in community colleges, this book of readings can also be helpful to other educators interested in the community emphasis and to lay leaders who participate in planning and carrying out educational enterprises. The eighty-three selections, along with copious quotations in the topical overviews, represent a great variety of writing by contemporary authorities in the field of education. A guide to further reading is provided in the Appendix.

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LAURA GOMEZ. *Suggestions for Improving the Work of the Principal in the Elementary Schools of Puerto Rico.**

The purpose of this study is to make some suggestions that will improve the work of the principal in the elementary schools of Puerto Rico. The plan of study follows:

1. To locate problems first in Roosevelt Elementary School at Mayaguez, Puerto Rico, and second in other elementary schools of the Island.

2. To find out the attitudes of a selected number of elementary school teachers in Puerto Rico toward supervisory practices.

3. To determine the way parents feel about the effectiveness of the supervision and administration of the elementary schools of Puerto Rico and to determine the way children feel about the Roosevelt Elementary School.

4. To discover the practices that the elementary school principals and other supervising officials have found helpful in performing their duties.

5. To describe practices found helpful in Roosevelt Elementary School.

6. To make suggestions that will serve as a guide for elementary school principals in Puerto Rico. These suggestions were based on data that were collected by means of questionnaires, opinionaires, and letters sent to the professional and lay people of Puerto Rico.

The study suggests some ways of improving the work of the principal in the elementary schools of Puerto Rico. These suggestions have grown out of findings of the study and from the reading of pertinent literature. The recommendations are based on an understanding of the prevailing conditions in Puerto Rico and in the elementary schools.

To improve the work of the principal, two basic suggestions were given: use of avenues of growth; evaluation.

In order to make sure that many avenues of growth are opened to all persons involved in school work, the following recommendations were offered: that direct supervision help teachers study and understand the children and the community from which they come; that the chief purpose of supervisory visits be understood by teachers and supervising officials to be the identification of problems for cooperative study and action.

The in-service educational program of the individual school unit needs continuous evaluation. For such reasons, the following suggestions for continuous evaluation were offered: that study of the results of the pro-

gram be used as a basis for taking the steps needed for improvement; that all involved and affected consider cooperatively the goals of education and the nature of the data to be recorded and that they plan cooperatively for further studies.

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DOROTHY MARTHA FROST. Economic Education on the Air.*

In February, 1948, an experiment in economic education by radio was initiated by the University of Washington. Made possible by a two-year grant from the Committee for Economic Development, the project was set up on a regional basis and attempted to motivate adults to consideration of economic problems through their local voluntary group affiliations. The plan of organization was geared to analysis of the general processes of communication as they applied to the specific socioeconomic characteristics of the Pacific Northwest.

Two basic premises of the plan were, first, that adults by affiliating with organized groups had signified an interest in some aspect of community life and thus might be more motivated by a program dealing with pertinent economic information. Second, these individuals, through face-to-face contacts, might be able to pull into participation the less active adults in the community.

The plan provided for direct advice from community groups concerning economic issues and possible speakers, a policy-making executive committee of lay and educational leaders, and a state-wide committee of sponsors.

On the basis of surveys of adult needs and interests a radio round-table series entitled "Think It Over" was developed. It went on the air in April, 1948, over three stations, and by the summer of 1949 was being released over fifteen stations.

Problems in developing this type of educational service generated the following conclusions.

To reach and hold an audience, such a program required constant and varied ad-

vance information and follow-up service. Local participation of groups in the planning and development of the project was necessary. Local problems needed to be emphasized. The series needed to be released over many stations strategically located. The program seemed to be more keenly appreciated in communities less accessible to other educational facilities. A transcribed series proved more versatile and useful for all groups.

Certain drawbacks became evident in the use of radio as a means of education. Among the most serious was the fact that adults in Washington proved to be only occasional listeners to any forum programs.

To counteract this problem yet utilize the acknowledged potential of radio, the director of the project proposed that the University integrate the continuing program with the adult-education extension services of the State. Thus the force of face-to-face communication could be utilized through the initiation of local group action pointed toward consideration of the economic issues presented by the radio forum series.

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THOMAS B. SHREWSBURY. Selected Cases of Human Relations in Student Personnel Work.*

Recently those in charge of the Student Personnel Administration area at Teachers College have desired to vitalize their largely theoretical training program by including realistic case situations for study and analysis. This project is one of five devoted to assembling such cases, which should have practical value at similar institutions also.

The 35 cases included depict some of the problems of human relationships met by college personnel workers. Problem-centered in design, and provocative of intelligent thought and discussion, they should help students to visualize more clearly their future responsibilities.

These cases were drawn from the experiences of 55 personnel workers, who described situations in which their actions

were influenced by inter- and intra-departmental relations, community and familial responsibilities, and professional concerns.

The cases are disguised, and written in short-story style. They are described from the point of view of the workers involved, thus enabling a student to empathize with the workers, see the situations as they did, and imagine how he would react were he in their positions. Finally, they present no solutions, because no pat answers exist to such situations, and inclusion of solutions would hinder free, unbiased discussion and consequent development by students of meaningful philosophies.

The casebook, divided into three sections, pictures five people who have contracted for positions, but who have not yet begun their work; fifteen people in their first year of personnel work, and fifteen workers with lengthier experience. This seemed logical because of the different attitudes, relationships, and job types observed between the first-year and the more experienced group. An introductory chapter describes the psychological rationale for this technique in training for student personnel work and for human relations, and includes certain suggestions for classroom use. Appendices include an index for selection of cases for particular units in a personnel course, and a bibliography pertinent to a course in human relations.

It is hoped that through intelligent use of these cases, which bring actual field problems to the classroom in an educational way and afford opportunity for experiential learning, personnel training programs can become more meaningful to all and can contribute to advancement of student-personnel administration as a profession.

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ARTHUR M. FRASER. *Music in Canadian Public Schools: Survey and Recommendations.**

Part I of the study, a survey of music in the Canadian public schools, is concerned primarily with determining percentages of

children who receive music instruction, percentages of teachers who teach music, the frequency and duration of music classes, and the amount of equipment available for the teaching of music. Part II of the study consists of a number of recommendations directed toward the growth and development of the whole field of school music in Canada.

The survey of music in Canadian public schools revealed a lack of organization in school music not only at the Dominion level, but also at the provincial level for seven provinces and at the town and city level for a great many urban centers. Despite this lack of organization, a great deal of music teaching is being done in Canada, and particularly general music teaching in the elementary grades. Compared to the general music situation, vocal and instrumental music participation is very low. Instrumental music training, primarily orchestral in character, is almost negligible except in the senior high school. The percentages of teachers who teach music were found to be highest in the largest cities. The study revealed that the Departments of Education have allotted more time for the study of music than actually is being used at present. It also revealed a serious lack of orchestra and band instruments, and an insufficient amount of space for efficient teaching.

In Part II of the study, it is recommended that the music program be extended at the junior and senior high school levels; that all the time which has been allotted for the study of music by the Departments of Education actually be used; that credit be given for music in all provinces; and that the instrumental phase of school music be extended.

It is recommended that directors and supervisors of school music be appointed at the provincial, city, and town levels. The scope and extent of music training for the general education student and the music specialist student in the universities should be increased considerably. It is recommended that school-music teachers' associations extend their scope of activities.

A recommendation is also made that the Departments of Education collectively make an effort to have musical instruments which are to be used for educational purposes enter Canada from the United States free from the 17½ per cent customs duty and sold in Canada free from the 8 per cent sales or consumption tax. It is recommended also that educational authorities who contemplate inaugurating an instrumental music program, place an emphasis on the development of the orchestra. This approach is aesthetically sound, is not costly, is compatible with climatic conditions, and is in line with the trend already established in Canada.



JOSEPH M. PEASE. Resource Material for Physical Recreation in Institutions of Higher Learning in the State of Washington.*

This study attempts to bring to the attention of educators in the State of Washington the inherent values in hunting, fishing, hiking, and mountain climbing programs as a means of educating youth for wholesome leisure activity. It has as its focus the State of Washington, and consequently deals with natural resources that are found in that state.

The material of the study was drawn from current literature in the field of education, publications dealing with specific activities, government publications, interviews, correspondence, and personal experience.

The materials are divided into two parts. Part I consists of three chapters covering the leisure-time problem, the various governmental and voluntary organizations concerned, and the natural resources of the State of Washington. A general treatment is given to the problem of leisure and the implications it has for education. Included in the discussion of the various organizations concerned with the problem are the major functions and the resources of these organizations, such as films, written ma-

terial, and resource personnel which are available for use in the programs. The last section of Part I is an overview of the natural resources in the State of Washington.

Part II is devoted primarily to a discussion of the minimum essentials involved in programs of hunting, fishing, hiking, and mountain climbing. In addition, a discussion of the community-college relationships, and suggestions and recommendations are included. The beginning of Part II is concerned with the skills and knowledges of wilderness living which are needed by the competent hunter, fisherman, hiker, and mountain climber. Following the section on wilderness living is a discussion covering the specific skills and knowledges essential to optimum satisfaction on the part of anyone who engages in the activities treated in the study. It is pointed out that values inherent in the programs, such as attitudes of conservation and democratic living, transcend mere activity and should be deliberately taught. In the discussion of the community-college relationship it is emphasized that "town and gown" rapport and student attitudes toward continuing activity will be greatly enhanced by the proper conduct of the program.



ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS. The Improvement of College Instruction through In-Service Practices.*

The basic purposes of this study were two. The first was to identify methods used by schools and colleges for improving instruction and to select those which seemed most capable of contributing to an increase of teaching effectiveness of the instructional staffs of institutions which prepare teachers. The second was to study the present use of these methods in the New York state teachers colleges and to gather judgments as to their value (or potential value) and their administrative feasibility.

A selection of 28 individual practices was developed from a survey of the literature. These were listed in a questionnaire de-

signed to secure opinions of teachers and administrators regarding the value, or potential value, of each practice. Administrators were also asked to express opinions as to how easy or how difficult it had been or would be to put the techniques into effective operation.

Five hundred and seventy-five forms were distributed to teachers in New York state teachers college and 145 to the administrators generally considered to be either directly or indirectly responsible for the quality of instruction in the same institutions. Forty-seven per cent of the teachers and 53 per cent of the administrators returned questionnaires.

Analysis of these returns showed that the 349 responding teachers and administrators are of the definite opinion that the 28 practices considered contribute to the improvement of teaching or could if they were used effectively, though on the average less than 40 per cent of the teachers reporting indicated that they had had experience with the practices.

The practices which, in the opinions of the teachers, are most valuable are:

1. Providing adequate clerical assistance in the preparation of class materials.
2. Informing members of the staff that good teaching is taken into account as a major factor in making promotions.
3. Working with public schools and other service area groups.
4. Providing materials of and facilities for instruction in line with the special needs and requests of teachers.
5. Encouraging faculty members to do experimentation and research and allocating time and facilities for doing so.

There appears to be a rather widespread feeling on the part of the 272 responding teachers that many administrators do not evidence sufficient sympathy toward, or understanding of, good college teaching. The individual differences of opinion and readiness among these teachers indicate that effective programs of in-service education should provide a variety of opportunities for growth. The administrators disagreed

on the ease or difficulty with which these in-service practices can be put into operation. Those who have had experience with the practices rated them, in every case, as easier to put into effect than did the other administrators.

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H. GEORGE MURPHY. Elementary School Principals and Supervisors in New York State Work for Curriculum Change.*

Elementary school curriculum development in New York State is, historically and legally, a joint concern for local schools and the state. The State Education Department is interested, therefore, in encouraging local curriculum-development programs. To this end, the Department will publish a series of pamphlets for the guidance of local communities as they work on the curriculum.

The writer was assigned by the Department, to locate and study promising techniques for effecting curriculum change and to make recommendations for the preparation of the series of guides.

In order to initiate the study, to discover the techniques already in use, and to search out promising practices for detailed research, a curriculum inquiry was sent to the elementary principals and supervisors of the state, outside of New York City. To discover how local curriculum development probably should proceed, the literature of curriculum development, as it pertains to the present problem, was reviewed. Thirteen school systems of various sizes and types were selected for detailed study and 33 schools were visited. Superintendents, elementary supervisors, principals, and teachers were interviewed, and limited classroom observations were made. An attempt was made to see how well the curriculum-development programs in the school systems visited fit in with the theory as developed from the literature. A set of evaluative criteria was also developed from the literature and was used in selecting the techniques to be recommended.

Local school officers, particularly elementary principals, need help with their curriculum-development programs. Techniques that seem worthy of recommendation at this time are: (1) central curriculum councils, steering committees or other over-all planning bodies; (2) staff meetings—building or horizontal grade groups; (3) special purpose committees; (4) interest or study groups; (5) workshops and work conferences; (6) materials bureaus or libraries; (7) intervisitation by teachers; (8) participation in regional efforts; (9) funds for consultants, courses, and attendance at conferences; and (10) individual teacher efforts. When these techniques are used, certain conditions must be met relating to the concept of the curriculum which guides the work, the amount and kinds of participation, the quality of communication, the purpose and use of materials, and the amount and kind of leadership available and used.

The printed guides should all present a common viewpoint and should contain many examples of how school systems are actually working on the elementary curriculum. They should be brief, simply written, and useful to various types of school systems with varying backgrounds of experience. Suggested titles are as follows:

1. Curriculum Projects and Practices¹
2. Responsibility for the Curriculum in New York State
3. Some Promising Local Curriculum Development Practices in New York State
4. New Emphases in Curriculum Development: A Point of View
5. A Check List for a Local Curriculum Development Program
6. Organizing for Curriculum Development: Some Promising Techniques

¹H. George Murphy. *Curriculum Projects and Practices: A Summary of the Elementary School Curriculum Inquiry as Reported by Principals and Supervisors in the Elementary Schools of New York State*. Elementary School General Curriculum Leaflet I. New York State Education Department, Albany, 1950. 35 p.

7. Staff Meetings for Curriculum Development
8. Curriculum Improvement through Workshops and Study Groups
9. The Curriculum Laboratory.

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HELEN E. KINNEY. A Program of Action to Develop Effective Relationships Between Nursing Organizations and Other Community Organizations.*

This is an account of what happened when a group of professional nurses undertook a program of action to do something about their problems, to broaden and strengthen the programs of nursing education, and to relate nurses and their work more closely to the life of the community in St. Louis, Missouri.

The program of action was started by the Public Health Nursing Section of the Third District Missouri State Nurses' Association with a study of the nursing situation to determine the most pressing needs, to plan methods of attacking the problems, and to seek a solution which might be of value to other nurses.

The Section's Executive Committee set up an Educational Committee with three subdivisions. These subcommittees were to devise a program for graduate nurses, faculty members of schools of nursing, and graduate nurses who were employed as general duty nurses in hospitals connected with schools of nursing. The program was to broaden the frame of reference to these nurses to include the community. The subcommittees began with research to find the needs of the graduating nursing groups. The program growing out of the research included an institute on the social and health aspects in the basic nursing curriculum, planned visits to selected community agencies, a pageant to build good public relations and pride in nursing, and special meetings for nurses and other interested citizens so that the community could be kept informed through progress reports.

The second phase broadened the base of operation. The St. Louis League of Nursing Education accepted the sponsorship and formed a Joint Committee on Integration of the Social and Health Aspects of Nursing to continue the community program for all graduate nurses in greater St. Louis. On the basis of an inventory of needs and opportunities, the Joint Committee carried out a three-month program of visits to selected agencies in order to broaden the background of the graduate nurse to include an understanding of the community.

The third phase developed as it became evident that the nursing groups would have to ask the consumers of nursing, the people in the community, to work with them. This was done by securing the interest and help of the Health and Hospital Division of the Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, which set up a committee on nursing problems. This committee, with a lay chairman and lay and professional membership, studied the various local problems in nursing and decided to work on the need for basic student and graduate nurse observation and participation in community agencies. It also studied the schools of nursing to find out what facilities for such activities were needed to meet requirements of the Missouri State Board of Nurse Examiners. A subcommittee studied the recommendations on Priorities for Field Training set up by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing and recommended that a workshop be planned for the directors of schools of nursing and their key personnel, directors of public health nursing agencies, and some resource people for the purpose of discussing ways in which public-health nursing agencies and other community resources might be used most effectively in the education of nurses. Plans were made at this workshop for further community action. The Joint Committee was dissolved and the Committee on Problems of Nursing became a permanent part of the Social Planning Council's program.

This program of action, broadened to include all nursing groups and bringing representation from the community, developed working relationships among nursing organizations, schools of nursing, and other community agencies, created more general awareness on the part of consumers of nursing, and awakened nurses to their responsibility to raise nursing standards through community cooperation.

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PAUL GRUTZNER BULGER. Administering the Use of Academic Space in Teachers College, Columbia University.*

There is general agreement that college buildings influence the curriculum to some extent. This project describes how one college administers academic space, presents some guiding principles for administering space, and offers suggestions for space administration at Teachers College, Columbia. While the study is based on one institution, it is hoped that the material will be helpful to colleges in general.

An investigation of the literature in the field disclosed a considerable amount dealing with elementary and secondary education, but little with higher education.

Taking an actual situation, the writer analyzed the minutes of the Space Committee of Teachers College to get the history of academic space assignment, the type of space problems presented, and some working principles and practices governing space administration.

Then, to put the analysis in its actual setting, it was necessary to take a third step: inventorying and studying the utilization of classroom space.

A specific example of how Teachers College deals with a major space problem, the relocating of the Department of Music and Music Education, is set down in Chapter IV.

The following guiding principles for administering college academic space are found in Chapter V:

1. College academic space should be ad-

ministered by a working group whose members represent faculty and administration viewpoints.

2. The administration of space should be regarded as a continuous process.

3. Requests for changes in space assignments or for building alterations should be processed through the established channels of the organization of the college.

4. Space should not be permanently assigned.

5. Space assignments should consider the cost factors.

6. Space assignments should take into consideration those factors that will furnish efficient service to faculty, staff, and students within reasonable costs.

7. Space administration should take into consideration the humanistic aspects of academic living.

8. Space should be administered to provide optimum utilization of plant within the framework of the educational policies and purposes of the institution.

9. Standards for space utilization should be developed.

10. Space should be administered so as to give flexibility for future space adjustments.

11. Space administrative procedure should take into consideration the persons who will be affected by decisions.

12. The space administrator or committee should utilize the advice of experts.

13. The space administrator or committee should operate on his or its own initiative in continually evaluating space needs.

14. A program that has been reviewed and has been accepted by educational, academic authorities in a particular field should not be arbitrarily limited by space decisions.

15. Lines of communication should be considered when assigning space.

16. Decisions should be based on utilization studies of areas under consideration.

17. Records of meetings and communications should be kept.

The concluding chapter restates the present plan of space administration at Teachers College and offers suggestions for the future.

VIRGINIA FRENCH. A Reader for Adult Students of American English as a Second Language.*

The report which is summarized here consists of two parts. Part I is a series of readings for adult students of English whose native language is Spanish. They are designed for students who have advanced beyond the beginning stages of English instruction but are not yet able to read American newspapers, novels, and essays with ease and enjoyment.

The readings are original stories and dialogues about ordinary people living in an ordinary town in the eastern part of the United States. Words that the student may find difficult are defined at the foot of the page on which they first occur, and the pronunciation is indicated by means of phonetic symbols. Tests of comprehension and exercises for practice in writing accompany the readings.

Other sections of Part I are the following: a key to the pronunciation symbols used in the text, an analysis of the vocabulary content, a list of grammatical patterns stressed by each reading, a list of the patterns of American culture that are illustrated by the stories and dialogues, a key to the comprehension tests, and a list of the words and expressions used in the readings.

Part II of the report presents and explains major principles underlying the production of a reader for adults learning English. These principles are related to such matters as the interdependence of language and other aspects of the culture, the use of reading materials for acquainting students with the culture that gives a language its meanings, the use of fiction as a way of encouraging students to share imaginatively in the experiences of the culture, and the importance of systematically introducing and repeating vocabulary and grammatical constructions in readers for foreign students.

Part II also includes an analysis of certain problems that need to be solved by writers who produce instructional materials of the sort contained in Part I. Three questions in-

dicating the kinds of problems that are cited: What situations from everyday American life should and can be treated in a set of readings for foreign students? Toward what level of English instruction should the readings be directed? When vocabulary and grammar patterns are systematically controlled and repeated, how can the style of the readings be made lively and interesting?

The two parts of the report are directly related to the two major aims of the project. The first of these aims was to help meet the urgent need for reading materials in which (1) the tone is adult and the subject matter is interesting; (2) words and grammatical constructions are systematically controlled in such a way as to make the reading process efficient and enjoyable; (3) students are enabled to widen and deepen their understanding of the ordinary life situations that give meaning to American English; and (4) students are encouraged to enter imaginatively into these day-to-day experiences that are inextricably bound up with the language of people in the United States.

The second general aim of the study was to formulate a statement of the problems and principles relating to the production of the reading materials, a statement that might prove useful to other teachers interested in writing readers for adult students of English as a second language.

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GERHARDT E. RAST. *The Changing Character of the Superintendent's Job.**

The school superintendents of the Metropolitan School Study Council initiated a study of the changing character of the superintendent's job during the school year 1950-1951. The author of the project report was one of the Metropolitan School Study Council superintendents who originated the idea. Later he was given full responsibility to motivate, organize, and evaluate the progress of the study. The action taken from October 1, 1950, to April 30, 1951 is the substance and problem of the project.

The purpose and plan of the study were developed cooperatively by the Steering Committee of the Council, the Council staff, the Committee of Fourteen Team Chairmen, and an Editorial Committee of five members. The seventy-two Council communities were organized as fourteen teams with five or six communities to a team. Each team devoted one day to a visit to each of its five or six communities with the following purpose in mind: to analyze the character of the administration of schools locally, focusing attention upon the job of the chief local school officer, with particular emphasis upon recent changes in its character and the need for change in administrative arrangements. Following each meeting a report was prepared listing the practices and problems of school administration discussed. The visiting team was aided in its deliberations by a Guide prepared by the Council staff and the Editorial Committee.

The author of the report, as coordinator of the study, prepared an over-all plan for its prosecution. The eleven elements of the plan follow: preparation and mailing of copies of the Guide and other materials needed by participants; continued concern with the possibility of broadening the original purpose of the study; concern with initial and continued motivation of participants; anticipation of problems; planning the work load; method of recording and collecting data; addition of faculty members to teams; classification, analysis of data, and evaluation of conclusions; preparation of the final report; evaluation of process; expression of appreciation to participants.

In addition, the coordinator planned and attended the necessary meetings and did the reading which would prepare him to do better the necessary tasks of classifying and analyzing the collected data.

Since this project is concerned with the process of the study and not with its findings, the following conclusions concerning the process are presented:

1. The process is a relatively new technique for the extension of the body of

knowledge in school administration through a team attempt to discover practices which work well, those which are faltering, and those which represent adaptation to new problems.

2. The team process of study has been conducive to the accomplishment of change in administrative organization and practices.

3. The process is a new and effective technique for the in-service training of administrators.

4. The discovery of new and emerging practices provides the factual and descriptive data needed to formulate an up-to-date theory of administration.

5. The values of the study have led some superintendents to ask for its continuance in some form or other.

6. School board members have asked for a similar study of school board functions.

7. This study can be one of a series which can eventually provide an improved professional body of knowledge and practices in school administration.



HIRAM KEITH BEEBE. A Practical Program of Religion for Princeton University.*

The purpose of this project is to prepare a religious program that is practical for Princeton University. Voluntary religious work began there in 1825 with four undergraduates whose aim was to "foster a spirit of brotherly love and of mutual watchfulness over one another's spiritual interests." They called themselves the Philadelphian Society. By 1900 the work had grown so much that a building was given to house the religious activities. The main emphases of the voluntary religious work were service to the college, study of the Bible, Christian evangelism, and social service. Voluntary religious work has played an important part in Princeton education.

Two objectives of a practical program of religion are to meet the needs of students and to prepare students for leadership in church and community. Some personal-

social needs of students are: solutions to the problems of suicides, excessive drinking, neurotic fear of war, personal insecurity, intense competition, lack of definite goals and objectives, finding a lifework, religious literacy, and understanding sex drives. Problems of low moral standards of freshmen, social exclusiveness, and improving student-faculty relations and the world community are to be solved by the college community. Needs of the religious organization are: evangelizing the unchurched, presenting a diversity of religious approaches, showing the importance of religious activity, and deciding upon the basis of membership and leadership in the religious program. The methods used in developing a practical program of religion are student initiative, unity of religious forces, a "creative minority" of students and faculty members, serving the needs of college and community, experimentation, a positive approach to religion, and having an adviser in religious work who knows how to do group work and personal counseling.

The Student Christian Association—its structure and its work—with an evaluation of its work in view of my philosophy of religious education is described in this report. Criticisms of the present situation are: it tends to be authoritarian rather than democratic; it lacks student training, apprenticeship, and adult supervision; it suffers from an inadequate system of communication and of measuring success and failure, lack of student motivation, creativity, and unity among religious forces, poor cooperation with the Student Christian Movement, lack of articulate and unified objectives among adult leaders, and failure to use faculty members effectively.

Four colleges and agencies were studied to discover methods of meeting needs which could help Princeton—Penn State Christian Association, Lafayette College Church, American Friends Service Committee, and Antioch College.

A program of practical religion for Princeton emphasizes four points: freedom within the religious organization for the

expression of many different points of view; the advantage of many small groups working as independent units instead of one highly centralized group directing the affairs of individuals; opportunity for student leaders of such groups to assemble for discussion, planning, and adult guidance; and faculty advisers for each of the small groups responsible in a supervisory and advisory capacity.

Reorganization will require the following new procedures to expand and improve the present work: a program for training undergraduate leaders; stimulation of students to form a "creative minority" to meet campus religious problems; unification of all religious forces around similar goals and objectives; and establishment of new committees to deal with new problems.

This work will require patient effort in reorganization because the heterogeneous character of Princeton University students militates against quick change and progress. Growth can be stimulated by the living example of Christian and democratic leaders responsible for the program of religion on the campus.



ANDREW FABORN ETIER. Suggested Areas of Secretarial Training for Midwestern University.*

The purpose of this project was to determine what areas of training should be included in a program for preparing efficient secretaries. The study was directed chiefly to the program of education at Midwestern University, Wichita Falls, Texas. It was concerned primarily with the needs of employers in Wichita Falls and the surrounding territory, with the duties which the secretaries perform on the job, and with the kind of preparation which both employers and secretaries have indicated as necessary for satisfactory service.

The data were gathered from three sources: 140 employers of secretaries in the Wichita Falls territory, 50 employed secretarial-science graduates from Midwestern

University (90 per cent of the number graduated), and faculty members of the Business Administration Department at Midwestern University.

In order to determine the needs of the employers and the duties that the secretaries perform on the job, it was necessary that a survey be made. The territory covered by the survey was within a 100-mile radius of Wichita Falls. The data reported by the secretaries and the employers were gathered by the use of a questionnaire.

Faculty members of the Business Administration Department of Midwestern stated in interviews that they were aware of the need for a revision of the secretarial training program, and they offered many constructive suggestions for both the employer's and the secretary's questionnaires.

On the basis of findings of the survey and of related research studies, and from recommendations from the faculty members of the Business Administration Department, the "Areas of Secretarial Training" are suggested for preparation of secretaries at Midwestern University. This study does not attempt to deal with the grade placement or the level of achievement to be developed, but rather with areas of specialized training.

The following areas are recommended: Shorthand, Transcription, Typewriting, Office Machines, Business English and Letter Writing, Secretarial Accounting, Business Law, Personal Grooming, Speech, Secretarial Practice (to include filing and filing systems, telephone usage, handling of mail, preparation of itineraries, and proper ways to meet the public), Development of Personal Qualities (It is recommended that all faculty members of the business administration department study individually and cooperatively the trainee during the four-year training period and through the use of personality tests supply the type of experiences that will develop the personal qualities necessary for success in the secretarial profession.), General Business Background (to include principles of economics, office management, statistics, and business mathematics).

ELIZABETH K. SKINNER. The Role of the School in Competitive Sports for Girls.*

The purpose of this study is to clarify the role of secondary schools in girls' sports education, with emphasis on highly organized competition in sports. This clarification necessitates determining the needs for the program, ascertaining the values of such a program, and establishing the relationship between the sports programs and the general educational program.

This study is organized into two parts. The first chapter of Part I indicates the developmental patterns of sports in the United States, and the relationship of sports to social, economic, and political freedoms for girls and women.

In the second chapter, the role of physical education in the school, as well as the relationship of the sports programs to class instruction, is presented to emphasize the cooperative effort needed in all fields of education.

The third chapter stresses the importance of meeting the needs and interests of girls who are interested in highly organized competition.

The final chapter of Part I presents a few of the current practices in the competitive sports for girls and women. The roles of both the school and the nonschool group are presented, and the proposed relationship of the two is suggested.

The first chapter of Part II of the study is concerned with exploitation of players and the potency of experience in regard to personality. Here are presented the problems and procedures to be considered in the highly organized program of competitive sports for girls and women (whereas the first part of the study provides background for these problems and procedures).

The last three chapters relate to selection of players and leadership, facilities and staff, and publicity. Each of these subjects plays an important role in competitive sports programs that are to be built upon sound educational principles.

The conclusions in this study emphasize the importance of the school's providing highly organized competitive sports programs for the girls who desire such activities. It is the school's responsibility to assure that students are exposed to the best possible sports experiences; therefore the schools must maintain students' allegiance by meeting individual needs, interests, and abilities.

In order to justify programs of highly organized competition, certain prerequisites for membership on these sports teams should be established. Among these are physical, mental, emotional, and social skills, as well as the willingness of the participant to abide by the rules governing participation. In addition, these programs of highly organized competition must be an integral part of the total physical education program and the regular school curricula. They should be conducted in a manner that is conducive to students' learning how to become desirable members of society.

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EDWARD LEE FLEMMING, JR. An Investigation of Problem-Centered Group Discussion as a Technique for Reorienting the Attitudes of the Aged.*

This exploratory study was based on twelve phonographically recorded sessions involving eight people whose median age was 75.5 years, and a group leader. Use was also made of the subjective evaluations of the group experience as presented by the participants. The results of an attitude scale administered before and after the group experience were also utilized.

The consistency with which the leader played his role was determined by the classification of the counselor's verbalizations into previously devised categories.

A system of classification of the participants' verbalizations was devised in order to differentiate various categories of content and feeling expressed. The responses were broken down into units. A total of 1268 units were categorized.

The reliability of the classification was measured by having two judges reclassify the material. These judges were able to duplicate the original classifications from 68 to 76 per cent of the time.

The group was divided in two on the basis of the reports of the participants.

In an exploratory study of this type it is not expected that the conclusions will be definitive. Listed below are the findings of this study.

1. Five members of the group felt that they had benefited from the group experience; three felt that they had not benefited.

2. There was a significant difference between the before and after test scores for the members of the benefited group. There was no significant difference for the non-benefited group.

3. There was a positive relationship between the discussion of problems and the increase of positive attitudes toward the self and others.

4. There was a positive relationship between the discussion of plans and the increased positive attitudes toward the self.

5. The decrease in negative attitudes was accompanied by an increase in positive attitudes toward the self and others.

6. The benefited group showed a greater and more consistent increase in positive attitudes than the nonbenefited group.

7. The group experience did not result in activity or attitudinal reorientation unless the decrease in negative attitudes was accompanied by an increase in positive attitudes.

8. Problem-centered group discussion demonstrated the same trends with the aged that nondirective group psychotherapy has demonstrated with the young in previous studies.

In light of the previous findings it is felt that problem-centered group discussion is a technique which can be used in reorienting the attitudes of similar groups of aged people. It is felt, however, that extended research in this area is necessary before the above hypothesis can be positively stated.

DAVID GOODMAN. The Improvement of the Educational Program of the Rhodes School through the Application of the Guidance Point of View.*

This project aims to show how a high school principal may improve the whole educational program of his school by application of the guidance point of view. It sets forth a concept of guidance that is preventative rather than remedial. Such guidance must permeate the whole school, concerning itself with every natural interest of student and teacher: health, social relations, mental development, vocational direction, and ethical behavior. The classroom teacher is the most important factor in guidance. He guides as he teaches. He influences by what he is as well as by what he does.

The concepts of guidance set forth herein were developed in a series of staff meetings, individual interviews, and group conferences at Rhodes School. Ideals of teaching gradually evolved around the guidance point of view, which regards the pupil always as the central figure in the school world and aims to promote his growth in studies and in general personal development.

Students were directed to look to the homeroom teacher as their first friend when they had a problem. In parent-teacher meetings, parents were encouraged to consider themselves as co-guidance officers with the teachers. The extracurricular activities were especially emphasized as a natural adjunct to classroom activities and as an opportunity for bringing out such nonverbal talents as cooperation, physical courage, democratic idealism. Recognizing the fact that the curriculum is responsible for many guidance problems, the staff planned numerous additions to the regular college preparatory curriculum to make the program of studies interesting to children of varied abilities and talents. Art, music, dramatics, commercial subjects, and remedial reading were especially considered. At the Rhodes School, a professionally trained guidance director is at hand for remedial work with distressed children and to prepare graduates to enter

good colleges or obtain good positions. All these endeavors are aimed at reducing the incidence of failure in the student body and increasing the incidence of positive academic and social success. The aim has always been to create in Rhodes School an atmosphere so pervasively wholesome and so inspiring that young people will be happy and consequently able to release their best energies in preparation for their future studies or work.

The results have been eminently satisfactory. In a period of declining registration in private schools, Rhodes maintains its enrollment. There is distinct evidence of improvement in scholarship and reduction in number of dropouts. That the teachers too are satisfied is evident in the maintenance of staff membership.



DANIEL WALDSTEIN. East European Jews in Israel Society.*

The purposes of this project are to study and describe the cultural patterns of Israelis of East European origin; to utilize this descriptive material in outlining certain conflicting aspects in the behavior of Israelis; to make suggestions as to how the educational institutions of Israel could approach the problem of diminishing the intensity of the conflicting modes of behavior exhibited by Israelis.

The following materials and sources were used in studying the cultural patterns of Israelis of East European origin: 150 interviews with 45 Israelis temporarily living in New York City; written material for historical, economic, social, and behavior analysis; motion pictures for the analysis of mother-child relations; direct observation and recording of parent-child relations; and analysis of a projective test given to thirty Israelis.

The descriptive presentation includes the following points: (1) the historical development of modern Israel, (2) social and economic conditions in Israel, (3) mother-child relations and the development of the child in

the family, (4) the behavior of Israeli children in school and society, (5) the behavior of adults in society, (6) the manner of speech of Israelis, (7) male-female relations, (8) learning and "culture," (9) dress and physical appearance, (10) leaders and ideology, (11) Israeli artistic products, (12) Israeli humor, (13) the various cultural factors related to death.

The patterns of behavior of Israelis toward their children consist of a combination of authoritarian dominance and loving indulgence. Israeli children and youth develop patterns of behavior such as the following: resistance and rebellion against their parents' authoritarianism; a tendency to assert their feeling of superiority over other people; consistent efforts toward perfection; a tendency to be very kind at times and very unkind at other times; tendencies to become attached to articles, places, and friends and to help one another even when it involves great individual sacrifice.

It is pointed out that many of the modes of behavior described conflict with the Israelis' conception of good behavior, and therefore disturb them. Furthermore, certain modes of behavior of Israelis hinder them in the accomplishment of their national goals and ideals.

Democratic modes of behavior are suggested as a substitute for the present parental modes of behavior toward children. This is done under the assumption that a change in the present parental modes of behavior will also bring about a change in the conflicting and disturbing modes of behavior of the younger generation.



EARL WILLHOITE. The Improvement of Radio Presentations of School Choral Groups.*

Many directors of choral music have approached a broadcast of their groups as if it were another auditorium performance. Others, realizing that differences exist between radio performance and auditorium performance, have made efforts to improve

the radio presentations of their organizations. The exact measures and procedures which should be taken have not always been clear to these directors. A study of the practices used by choral groups which have presented radio broadcasts over the major networks for several years can serve to indicate what these measures are.

For almost two years the writer has been privileged to observe the procedures used in the planning, building, and rehearsing of the Fred Waring Show, assist in the balancing and monitoring, and consult with members of the staff. In addition he has listened to numerous recordings of broadcasts of school choral groups and has had opportunities to compare the practices used on programs presented by other commercial choral groups with the ones developed over a period of years by the Fred Waring staff. These activities have indicated the weaknesses of school broadcasts and the measures which should be stressed in the preparation of radio presentations by school groups.

The purpose of the project is not to compile and describe the practices used by commercial radio groups but to state the measures which the study indicates should be taken by the directors of school choral groups.

These measures are classified in six areas: planning the program, building the program, building the audience, rehearsals in the choir room, relations with personnel of the radio station, and rehearsals in the radio studio. In each of these areas means are suggested which will contribute to the improvement of the quality of the broadcast.

Emphasis is placed on the use of the varied interests and talents of students to the greatest possible extent; the need to consider the audience in planning, building, and rehearsing the program; the importance that the program be heard; the necessity for experimentation in determining seating arrangements and microphone positions; microphone instruction and techniques; the use of the school public address system, central sound system, and/or recording machine; the importance of cooperation with the staff

of the radio station; the indispensability of studio rehearsals; and the importance of and procedure in control room balancing and monitoring of programs of choral music.

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MILDRED L. FAIRCHILD. The Art Specialist and the Improvement of the Art Education Experiences of Elementary School Children.*

Modern concepts of art education based on developments in childhood education are widely accepted in theory by most educators. In brief, they acknowledge the importance of art experiences for the well-rounded growth and development of all children; the importance of art programs based on needs, interests, and experiences of children; and the new role of the art specialist as resource person rather than teacher. To a large degree, however, such concepts remain on a theoretical level in school situations and are too infrequently evident in practice. Much of this discrepancy is due to lack of know-how in implementing modern concepts of art education, for the traditional curricular organization on a subject matter or specialized basis is deeply rooted.

This study is intended to clarify the role of the art specialist in the elementary school and to define his responsibilities for providing improved art instruction for children in the light of recent educational thinking.

Because modern concepts of art education have been considerably affected by present emphases in childhood education which should be understood by the art specialist, the study is first concerned with these emphases: interest in the well-rounded growth and development of the child as an individual and as a member of the group, the stress on unified learning experiences for children, and the role of the classroom teacher as the coordinator of the learning experiences of children.

Characteristics of the art program as they relate to emphases in childhood education are discussed at some length: importance of

the development of the creative abilities of all children, contributions of the art experience to personality development, stress on the importance of the process in artistic endeavor as contrasted with stress on the product, growth of aesthetic sensitivity, development of democratic behavior and group responsibility through the art program.

Considerable attention is given to ways in which the art specialist can achieve greater understanding of and harmonious relationships with both classroom teachers and children as essential to the fostering of creativity.

Part II of this study is primarily concerned with an analysis of the various roles of the art specialist in the elementary grades—as art teacher, art resource person, art supervisor, and art director. Each role is defined and described. The next consideration is of the responsibilities which are common to all art specialists regardless of their role, and those which are unique to each role.

The concluding chapter of the study presents an evaluation of each of the roles of the art specialist and makes recommendations for the most effective use of the art specialist in promoting worth-while art experiences for children in the elementary grades.

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C. HENRY WOOD. The General Education Movement and the West Point Curriculum.*

This project report has as its purpose an analytical and critical examination of the general education component in the curriculum of the United States Military Academy at West Point. The history of the Academy is traced, with particular attention to fundamental purposes, policies, and practices. The present situation regarding general education is then compared with that existing in a critically selected group of liberal arts colleges and engineering schools.

For purposes of comparison the following colleges of liberal arts were selected: Har-

vard for concentration and distribution; Columbia for comprehensive survey courses; General College of the University of Minnesota for functional approach; St. John's College at Annapolis for philosophical approach; Bard College and Black Mountain College for activity or individual guidance program. The three engineering schools studied were Columbia University School of Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Department of Engineering Sciences and Applied Physics at Harvard University. The reports and discussions of the faculties of several schools of law and medicine were surveyed briefly to discover the degree to which the philosophy of general education has broadened their aims.

The curriculum at West Point is evaluated in terms of the Eleven Objectives of General Education as stated in Higher Education for American Democracy. Kept in mind is the unique mission of the Military Academy, "To instruct and train the corps of cadets so that each graduate shall have the qualities and attributes essential to his progressive and continued development throughout a lifetime career as an officer in the regular army."

The major recommendations growing out of the study are as follows:

1. That continued study and experimentation be encouraged to find more effective means to implement the program of general education at West Point, and that a standing committee of the faculty be set up to guide such efforts.
2. That an educational advisory staff be organized to serve as an over-all appraisal and evaluating agency.
3. That the in-service education of new instructors be conducted by a Department of Military Instructor Training.
4. That in order to reduce some of the restrictive tendencies of departmentalization two broad divisions be formed—one in the sciences, and the other in the social sciences and the humanities.
5. That consideration be given to the formation of a corps of professional instructors drawn from three sources: the regular

army, reserve officers on active duty, and qualified civilian teachers.

6. That a remedial reading and guided study program be instituted.

7. That the concept of the library as a research and teaching agency be broadened and immediate steps be taken to improve the physical facilities of the library.

8. That increased attention be given to the fine arts, in order that some means may be found to increase the aesthetic, emotional, and critical sensitivity of the cadet during his formative years at West Point, especially since the army postgraduate school program has no provision for general education in the fine arts.

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HARRY L. MILLER. The Realist Film and Social Attitudes, an Exploratory Study of *The Quiet One*.*

The object of this study was to test the effect of an ultra-realistic picture of Negro life on an ordinary adult audience, and to explore audience reaction for clues leading to evidence on such problems of communication as identification, complex message grasp, and the effects of prejudice.

The documentary film *The Quiet One* was shown to small groups to whom a short prejudice questionnaire was administered. Half of the total group completed the test before viewing the film, half after the final interview. Each subject took part in a focused interview which was tape-recorded.

Analysis was made in terms of understanding of the direct message of the film, a psychiatric theme unrelated basically to the fact that the major characters were Negro. Three groups were distinguished: I, insight; II, understanding; III, derailment. The variation of factors such as prejudice and identification within these three groups was discussed, and the following conclusions were drawn:

For some highly prejudiced individuals the film tends to act as a support of their previously held stereotyped attitudes, al-

though this effect does not seem to be significantly great. Prejudice in itself does not block understanding, although there appears to be a relationship between feelings of real hostility toward the Negro and message block. Identification with the major character is not necessary to understanding, although it does relate to an ability to achieve insight; the fact that a character is a Negro might well block identification.

Generally, insight failure and genuine distortion seem to be due to the selection of a point of focus off-center from the actual focus of the film's events. The original selection of the focal point, and the organization of perception about it, seem most often to be autistically determined by the basic attitude—positive or negative—of the respondent toward Negroes in general.

In order to decrease the possibility of audience error, it is suggested that program leaders be provided with methods and material in the form of a discussion guide for dealing with stereotyped reactions to Negro life in film, and that a prediscussion period to provide proper audience focus be encouraged.

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JOSEPH B. KENNY. A Practical Law Guide for New York Teachers.*

The purpose of this project is to provide New York teachers with a convenient guide to their legal rights and responsibilities. The candidate, a teacher and a member of the New York Bar, presents in nontechnical language the law of this state, so far as it affects teachers in their work and in their relations with the board of education which employs them. The project includes such topics as contracts, negligence, appointment, tenure, salary, dismissal, and retirement. No attempt is made to cover rights which teachers enjoy in common with citizens generally.

The opening chapter discusses the legal status of public education, and the relations between the federal government, the state government, and the localities in the field of education.

Chapter II deals with the rights and responsibilities of teachers arising out of contract. The nature and essential elements of a contract, and the status of the teacher as an employee with rights and responsibilities arising out of a contractual relationship with the board of education which employs him are explained.

This chapter also analyzes the important provisions of the teacher tenure laws. The following items are covered: probationary appointment, permanent appointment, tenure areas, grounds for dismissal of teachers, and the procedures required to be followed in dismissing teachers. There is also a discussion of numerous cases in which the Commissioner of Education and the courts indicate what is meant by such statutory grounds of dismissal as insubordination, conduct unbecoming a teacher, inefficient and incompetent service, and neglect of duty.

An analysis of the 1951 Teachers' Salary Law and of the provisions of law covering teachers' retirement benefits is included.

Chapter III discusses liability for negligence. It explains such terms as negligence, duty of care, proximate cause, and contributory negligence. It continues with the question of liability of school districts for personal injuries resulting from negligence in maintenance of school property, from failure to furnish adequate supervision of pupils, from failure to establish rules and regulations governing order and discipline in the schools, and from requiring or permitting pupils to engage in dangerous activities.

The chapter also explains the liability of teachers for failure to take reasonable precautions for the safety of the children entrusted to their care and points out the duty of teachers to exercise adequate supervision over the activities of pupils at all times. It presents a statement of the items of damages which may be recovered in an action for personal injuries resulting from negligence.

The project closes with major recommendations based upon the study.

Departmental Notes

Division I

Foundations of Education

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

PROFESSOR George S. Counts' new book, *Education and American Civilization*, has just been published by the Teachers College Bureau of Publications. The volume "represents an effort to meet in the field of education the challenge of totalitarianism—an effort to develop a conception of American education which will support the values of a free society as clearly and effectively as the educational conceptions of the totalitarian states support the purposes of despotism."

THE fourth and completely revised edition of *A Study of Rural Society*, by Professor J. H. Kolb of the University of Wisconsin and Professor Edmund deS. Brunner of the department, has been published by Houghton Mifflin.

Division II

Administration and Guidance

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

PROFESSOR Harold J. McNally spent February 21, 22, and 23 in St. Louis, Mo., as chairman of the Conference Summary Session of the Regional Conference of the National Department of Elementary School Principals.

He participated in the recently completed comprehensive survey of the Jericho, L. I., school district.

GUIDANCE

"HUMAN Relations and Safety" was the title of a talk Professor Albert S. Thompson delivered to the 1952 Supervisor's Accident Prevention Conference of the Consumer Power Company of Michigan.

A portrait of Professor Emeritus Harry Kitson was presented to the College by his former students on January 24. The presentation was made in the Grace Dodge Room by Dean Mitchell Dreese of George Washington University.

Division III

Instruction

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

PROFESSOR Gordon N. Mackenzie, who has been on partial leave during the Winter Session, is on full leave for the Spring Session.

MANY members of the department attended the annual Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development meeting in Boston, February 10-14. Several served as resource persons in various group meetings. Professor Ralph Fields, chairman of the Resolutions Committee, presided at the third general session.

As the northeast regional consultant in parent education for the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Professor Ernest G. Osborne took part in the State Congress parent education workshops. They were held at Annapolis, Md., from January 17 to 19, and at Gorham, Me., from February 15 to 17.

A management course for directors, supervisors and principals of nursery schools, child-care centers, private and public schools and other institutions for young children is being offered by the department this semester. Professors Roma Gans and Harold McNally, assisted by specialists in pediatrics and welfare and by state supervisors of children's services, are the instructors.

Particular attention is being given to coordinating schools and agencies, and to the financial, housing, health, equipment, staff and program aspects of the institutions.

SOCIAL SCIENCES

PROFESSOR George T. Renner was editor of the February 4 special issue of *Current Events*, a weekly newspaper. The issue was entitled "Maps for a World in Conflict."

MATHEMATICS

ON March 29, Professor Howard Fehr will participate in a mathematical conference at Normal, Ill., and two weeks later will attend the Ontario Mathematical Congress which will be held in Toronto.

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Two new courses are being given in the department this Spring Session. A special-fee course, "Methods of Teaching Russian Language to American Students in American Schools" (Ed. 280ncaSL) is taught by Professor André von Gronicka. The second new course, "The English Teacher and the Library" (Ed. 261LU), is being conducted by Professor Ethel M. Feagley, Miss Helen C. Sill, and others.

PROFESSOR Daniel P. Girard has been named chairman of the "Committee on the Problems of the French Teacher and Some Suggestions for His Improvement," which is part of the Yale-Barnard Conference on the Teaching of French. The conference will

meet in New Haven, Connecticut, April 19.

PROFESSOR Louis Forsdale, assistant chairman of the committee on Professional Preparation, Division of Audio-Visual Instruction of the NEA, attended a meeting of the committee at Boston from February 7 to 9. The group met to draft recommendations for certification requirements for professional workers in the audio-visual field.

THE American Broadcasting Company and the Columbia University Press have announced the continuation of the *Horizons* television series. This provides for an extension of the series for an additional thirteen weeks, beginning with the March 2 program. Professor Forsdale continues to serve as Program Coordinator.

SINCE January of this year, Dr. Joseph Raymond has had a series of articles on Spanish folklore published in the magazine *Temas*. The latest article is "Spanish Riddles."

The January issue of *Western Folklore* published "More Korean Proverbs" by Professor Raymond. The theme will be given further treatment in another publication under the title "Current Korean Riddles."

THE "Allan Abbott Associates" is the name of a recently-formed advanced professional group in the department, named in honor of the former department head, Professor Emeritus Allan Abbott. The Associates elected Mr. Alton Hobgood chairman.

MUSIC EDUCATION

ON February 6 and 7, Professor Harry R. Wilson conducted a district choral festival in Laurel, Delaware. Several of his new compositions were performed.

THE eastern division sub-committee on graduate study in music education has appointed Professor Howard A. Murphy chairman. The group is part of the general committee of the Music Educators National Conference on Music in Higher Education.

HOME ECONOMICS

A seminar to find out how to help the public recognize quality in buying women's wool suits and coats was held at the College February 29, under sponsorship of the Wool Bureau Inc., in cooperation with the home economics department.

The seminar is the second in a nationwide series to give educators and trade officials an opportunity to discuss problems of retail store owners and the general public. The Wool Bureau will publish a booklet for schools and colleges from information obtained at the meetings.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

AN article by Mr. Merrill T. Hollinshead, "The Role of Discipline in Counseling Practices with Handicapped Children," appeared in the November issue of *The Nervous Child*. He has also contributed an article to the January issue of the *American Journal on Mental Deficiency* called "Pattern of Social Competence in Older Retarded Boys."

Division IV

Nursing Education

A new book by Miss Hildegard Peplau, *Interpersonal Relations in Nursing*, has been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

PROFESSOR Thelma J. Ryan has been appointed special consultant in Nursing Service for a survey at Kings County Hospital, under the auspices of the Hospital Council of Greater New York.

Institute of Administrative Research

PARTICIPANTS in the Central School Study are now using *Budgeting Practices in Central Schools*, the Study's recently published report of current practices in budget making as educational planning. The topic is

being studied locally and in area groups, looking toward acceptable revisions in budgeting procedure from the point of view of involving a whole community in educational planning.

Institute of Adult Education

THE Institute has just completed a national mailing of 4,000 copies of each of two reprints from the Record, summarizing the work of the past two years on two studies: "Effective Preparation for Later Maturity," and "Education for Active Adult Citizenship."

Institute of Field Studies

A school building survey of Glen Ridge, Glen Head, and Sea Cliff school districts in the Northwest Oyster Bay Area, has just been completed. Finance and transportation of the districts have also been studied.

A school building and transportation study is now under way for the Township of Lower Penns Neck, N. J.

THE Institute is providing consultation to school boards and architects on new school buildings and additions to buildings already built in Verona, N. J., Rockville Centre, N. Y., Irvington, N. J., Valhalla, N. Y., Hicksville, N. Y., Babylon, N. Y., and Manhasset, N. Y.

Office of Field Relations and Placement*

The following recent appointments are reported by the Office of Field Relations and Placement:

Adler, Sylvan David (A.M. 1951), supervising principal, Walden Elementary School, Walden, N. Y.

*Any student who is taking or has taken twelve points of work at Teachers College may register with the Office of Field Relations and Placement. Any student in the allied schools of Columbia University who has carried twelve points of work is also eligible for registration.

Aisup, Katherine (A.M. 1942), program director, Recreation Rooms and Settlement, New York, N. Y.

Allen, Dorothy S. (A.M. 1935), head of department of social studies, Alexis I. du Pont Special School District, Wilmington, Del.

Altshuler, Florence Estelle, teacher of physical education, Stamford High School, Stamford, Conn.

Ammer, Maxine E. (A.M. 1951), student counselor, University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch, Duluth, Minn.

Aneda, Charles F. (A.M. 1948), teacher in English, Junior High School, Garden City, Mich.

Batal, G. Robert, assistant director of athletics, The Dalton School, New York, N. Y.

Batchelder, Bernice A. (A.M. 1934), professor of education, Ashland College, Ashland, Ohio.

Beilin, Harry (A.M. 1949), instructor in psychology, Orange County Community College, Middletown, N. Y., and research assistant, Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Belina, Leo P. (A.M. 1950), instructor in commercial education, Hartford Institute of Accounting, Hartford, Conn.

Bell, William Portwood (A.M. 1948), teacher of sixth grade, Liberty Street School, Nyack, N. Y.

Bertcher, Harvey (A.M. 1951), director of youth activities, Jewish Community Center, Troy, N. Y.

Blanchard, Carroll M. (A.M. 1948), educational specialist, Proficiency Test and Analysis Agency, Signal Corps, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

Boyce, Edith H. (Prof. Dip. 1950), guidance counselor, Junior High School, Mineola, N. Y.

Bradford, Barbara O. (A.M. 1951), instructor in physical education, Bethany College, Bethany, W. Va.

Brauner, Charles J. (A.M. 1951), teacher of English, Bergland High School, Bergland, Mich.

Bressi, Elisabeth (A.M. 1940), teacher of first grade, Public School, Elmont, N. Y.

Burghardt, Mildred (A.M. 1947), instructor in biochemistry, Associated University, Upton, N. Y.

Carbone, Anthony Francis (A.M. 1951), instructor in art, Henry C. Conrad High School, Woodcrest, Wilmington, Del.

Cary, James Leonard, student activities adviser, Howard University, Washington, D. C.

Chamberlain, Audrey (A.M. 1951), kindergarten teacher, Haven School, Evanston, Ill.

Christian, Susan R., nutritionist, Extension Service, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Cleary, Florine (A.M. 1946), teacher of remedial reading, Public Schools, Great Neck, N. Y.

Collins, Rhoda C. (A.M. 1930), dietitian, Lynchburg College, Lynchburg, Va.

Cumliffe, Helen L., staff member, Office of International Information, Department of State, Washington, D. C.

David, Henry P. (Ph.D. 1951), senior clinical psychologist, Topeka State Hospital, Topeka, Kans.

Davis, Stewart G., administrative assistant, Public Schools, Stratford, Conn.

De Rodeff, Boris Martin (A.M. 1950), teacher of business education, West Phoenix High School, Phoenix, Ariz.

Deutscher, J. Noel (A.M. 1937), assistant director, education department, National Association of Manufacturers, New York, N. Y.

Dever, James A. (A.M. 1948), elementary principal, Wheeler Avenue School, Valley Stream, N. Y.

Doyle, John D. (A.M. 1949), teacher of special classes, Junior High School, Valley Stream, N. Y.

Eastmond, Jefferson N., assistant professor of education, Utah State Agricultural College, Logan, Utah.

Eddy, C. David (A.M. 1951), teacher of mathematics, science, and history, Foch Intermediate School, Detroit, Mich.

Ellison, Alfred (Ed.D. 1950), assistant professor of education, New York University, New York, N. Y.

Engler, Katherine G. (A.M. 1951), teacher of Spanish, Valley Stream Central High School, Valley Stream, N. Y.

Felch, Ada V. (A.M. 1939), associate director of nutritional services, Department of Mental Hygiene, State Department of New York, Albany, N. Y.

Fernan, Richard J., librarian and teacher of English, Bethpage School, Bethpage, N. Y.

Formaad, William (A.M. 1950), supervisor of speech, Public Schools, Hamden, Conn.

Godbey, Margaret (A.M. 1947), teacher of physical education, James S. Deady Junior High School, Houston, Tex.

Graham, John R. (A.M. 1950), band director, High Schools, Nutley, N. J.

Gunderson, Ralph E. (A.M. 1951), teacher of eighth grade and coach, High School, Arlington, Wash.

Haber, Zelda (A.M. 1951), occupational therapy aide, Payne Whitney Clinic, New York Hospital, New York, N. Y.

Jackson, Clifton W. (A.M. 1951), teacher of business education and guidance counselor, High School, Fair Lawn, N. J.

Johnshoy, Howard G. (Ed.D. 1951), administrative assistant to president, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Johnson, Elsie Margaret, teacher of social studies, Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.

Jones, William Lawrence (A.M. 1947), executive secretary, P. S. Brodnax Branch, YMCA, Danville, Va.

Kable, Louise Melville (B.S. 1938), head teacher and teacher of fifth grade, D Street School, Needles, Calif.

Kennedy, Clarence B. (A.M. 1950), principal, Dependents School, Chester, England.

Klausner, Samuel Z. (Ed.D. 1951), lecturer in education, City College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.

Latimer, Alice W. (A.M. 1951), cafeteria manager and homemaking teacher, Brookline High School, Brookline, Mass.

Leeland, Albert L., supervisor of student teachers, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Lehrer, Evelyn (A.M. 1950), assistant director of nursing, Grasslands Hospital, Valhalla, N. Y.

Lovinger, Warren C. (Ed.D. 1947), president, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S. D.

Marsh, Donald D. (A.M. 1950), guidance counselor, Pace College, New York, N. Y.

Mayans, Frank, Jr. (A.M. 1951), research assistant, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

McGrath, Fern, school psychologist, Public Schools, Glen Rock and Ho-ho-kus, N. J.

Merlehan, Claire Margaret (A.M. 1947), library interne, Newark Public Library, Newark, N. J.

Morrow, John Walker (A.M. 1951), teacher of speech and business education, Junior High School, Prescott, Ariz.

Moss, Grant, Jr. (A.M. 1949), demonstration teacher, Cheyney Training School for Teachers, Cheyney, Pa.

Munn, Margaret L. (A.M. 1949), elementary coordinator, San Diego County Schools, San Diego, Calif.

Murphy, Aaron E. (A.M. 1949), instructor in speech, dramatics and English, Washington Technical High School, St. Louis, Mo.

Owings, Ralph S. (Ed.D. 1949), professor of educational administration, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg, Miss.

Pape, Laurence A. (Ed.D. 1949), chairman, division of physical education and athletic director, Fresno State College, Fresno, Calif.

Pillard, Matthew J. (Ed.D. 1951), associate professor of education, University of Delaware, Newark, Del.

Pope, Necie, lecturer in education, City College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.

Pratt, Edith G. (A.M. 1948), service club director, Army Special Services, Fort Monmouth, N. J.

Ranhofer, Louis G. (A.M. 1950), teacher of business education, Junior High School, Great Neck, N. Y.

Rankin, Earl F., Jr., teacher of remedial reading, Woodmere High School, Woodmere, N. Y.

Reuben, Geneva L. (A.M. 1950), counselor, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, Tallahassee, Fla.

Reynolds, Wynn R., teacher of speech, dramatics and English, Shadyside High School, Shadyside, Ohio.

Riley, Paul S. (A.M. 1950), research assistant, Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Robb, Herbert E. (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and social studies, Junior High School, Amityville, N. Y.

Robbins, Doris Elizabeth, elementary supervisor, West Babylon School District, Babylon, N. Y.

Roemmich, Herman (A.M. 1946), psychologist-group leader, Navy Electrics Laboratory, San Diego, Calif.

Rowen, Victor (A.M. 1951), director of physical education, Defiance College, Defiance, Ohio.

Rozanski, Janina, librarian, Junior High School, South Plainfield, N. J.

Sachsenhaus, Ruth (A.M. 1946), consultant in nursery education, New York City Department of Health, Day Care Unit, New York, N. Y.

Salerno, Antoinette (A.M. 1950), teacher of fourth grade, Pearl River School, Pearl River, N. Y.

Sanders, Gabe (A.M. 1948), assistant professor of education, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio.

Sanfilipo, Josephine E., teacher of Spanish and Latin, High School, Lindenhurst, N. Y.

Seabury, Hugh F. (Ed.D. 1938), director of instructor training, Forbes Air Force Base, Topeka, Kans.

Shapot, Harold (A.M. 1951), instructor in commercial education, Drake Business School, New York, N. Y.

Sherman, Murray H. (Ph.D. 1951), clinical psychologist, United States Naval Hospital, Camp Lejeune, N. C.

Smith, Ann Avery, assistant dean of women, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Smith, Carlton L. (A.M. 1951), teacher of biology, Irene S. Reed High School, Shelton, Wash.

Smith, Willard L. (A.M. 1950), principal, Walter Stillman School, Tenaflly, N. J.

Stewart, Edith M. (A.M. 1951), director of scholarships, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Storzer, Georgia (A.M. 1948), teacher of physical education, High School, Mt. Pleasant, Mich. and assistant professor of physical education, Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant, Mich.

Stratemeyer, Clara G. (Ph.D. 1938), elementary supervisor, elementary schools, Montgomery County, Md.

Strevell, Wallace H. (Ed.D. 1948), professor of education and chairman of the department of educational administration, University of Houston, Houston, Tex.

Sullivan, Loretta J., school psychologist, Public Schools, Great Neck, N. Y.

Tanner, Paul E., research mathematician, United Aircraft Corporation, East Hartford, Conn.

Templeton, Arthur D. (A.M. 1943), assistant school administrator, Public Schools, Yonkers, N. Y.

Thomas, Grace Marion, teacher of English, Baxter Junior High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Thompson, Barbara, employment interviewer

and counselor, New York State Employment Service, New York, N. Y.

Thompson, James J. (A.M. 1951), supervisor of music and glee club director, Public Schools, Graveville, Fla.

Thompson, Mary White (A.M. 1945), teacher of physical education, E. C. Glass High School, Lynchburg, Va.

Trexel, Charles Austin, traveling music teacher, Hebron, Pittsville, Wiconico County, Salisbury, Md.

Thornhill, Gertrude P. (A.M. 1919), director of Town and Country Dormitory, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.

Turney, Donald C. (A.M. 1951), teacher of speech and dramatics, Globe High School, Globe, Ariz.

Upham, Robert C. (A.M. 1950), teacher of social studies, Milford High School, Milford, N. H.

Valentino, Signe Jahren, teacher of physical education, Central School, Jeffersonville, N. Y.

Van Orden, Muriel Lila (A.M. 1948), teacher of commercial education, High School, Hicksville, N. Y.

Vest, Ruth W. (A.M. 1941), teacher of art, New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson, N. Y.

Vinciguerra, William L. (A.M. 1951), teacher of elementary subjects, Northside School, Levittown, N. Y.

Wald, Charles (A.M. 1950), school psychologist, Board of Education, Rochester, N. Y.

Walker, Rena (T.C. Dip. 1952), psychologist and social worker, Florida Industrial School for Girls, Ocala, Fla.

Walz, Vina E. (A.M. 1933), teacher of English, Junior High School, Farmington, N. M.

Ward, Henry R. (A.M. 1951), assistant director, Lynch Center, New York, N. Y.

Watkins, Wallace D. (A.M. 1951), executive director, Lycoming County Branch, Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, Williamsport, Pa.

Waymer, Mattie L. (A.M. 1947), assistant professor of home economics, Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.

Wellington, Charles Burleigh, lecturer in mechanical engineering, University of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H.

Wicklund, Leone (A.M. 1950), assistant art director, Marschalk & Pratt Advertising Company, New York, N. Y.

Wolfer, Wilfred C. (Ed.D. 1951), business manager, Board of Education, Greenwich, Conn.

Wright, William McK. (A.M. 1951), assistant to dean of students, Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pa.

Yeya, Teruko (A.M. 1951), vocational counselor, Marycrest School, Wickliffe, Ohio.

Yoshizawa, Sumi (A.M. 1951), assistant head resident, Lincoln Avenue Residence, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Yost, William J. (Ed.D. 1951), assistant professor of education, University of Houston, Houston, Tex.

Zimmerman, A. Alfred (A.M. 1950), dean of

students, California School for the Blind, Berkeley, Calif.

Zimmerman, Verna M. (A.M. 1951), dean of women, Central Missouri College, Warrensburg, Mo.

Ziobrowski, Stasia Mary (A.M. 1949), instructor in education, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

Zuchowski, John M. (A.M. 1943), head football and baseball coach, Roswell Public Schools, Roswell, N. Mex.

Zuckerman, Martin (Ed.D. 1951), principal, Bensenville Community High School, Bensenville, Ill.

Alumni Activities

The Rollins Conservatory of Music, Extension Division, has announced the appointment of Michael Malis as a teacher of voice. He is also music director for the First Baptist Church of Winter Haven in Fla.

Delbert Sterrett (A.M. 1942), an assistant professor of music at the University of Florida, is director of the recently organized Women's Glee Club. The group has appeared on radio, television and the concert stage. Mr. Sterrett, a tenor soloist, has taught in South America, Europe and the Near East.

"Teamwork" was the theme of a December meeting of nurses, secretaries and technicians of physicians and officers of hospitals and health departments, sponsored by the Robeson County (N. C.) Medical Society. Dr. Elizabeth L. Kemble (Ed.D. 1948), principal speaker of the evening, is Dean of the School of Nursing, University of North Carolina. She is also the director of the Department of Measurements and Guidance of the National League of Nursing Education, and in that capacity has supervised the development of tests for the nursing profession to aid in the selection of applicants to schools of nursing, to measure the achievements of students in various phases of their training, and to examine students applying for state licenses.

Art consultant of the Defiance, Ohio schools, Roger Noffsinger (A.M. 1951), has a unique method of staging the work of his 900 pupils. Mr. Noffsinger's latest school-wide exhibition reproduced in miniature a small community of stores, shops and sur-

roundings. Each student contributed something in this project, which became the subject of a feature article in the January issue of *School Arts Magazine*.

Paul L. Johnson (Ed.D. 1951) recently assumed his duties as president of the Jacksonville (Fla.) Junior College. Dr. Johnson has had experience as a college instructor and dean, a high school principal, and a textbook author.

One of four citations by the Ann-Reno Institute of New York at Founders Day Convocation went to Mrs. Doris Kruse Minissale (A.M. 1945). The citation was given for her "keen interest and generous spirit which helped enrich the life of the Ann-Reno Institute during her student days."

The appointment of Helen Gail Easter (A. M. 1930) as county home demonstration agent for Suffolk County has been announced. She had been serving as the associate agent for the past year and a half.

Protestant Episcopal Bishop Horace W. B. Donegan has announced the appointment of Edward L. Hawthorne (Ed.D. 1950) as executive director of Saint Barnabas House. The House is operated by the New York Protestant Episcopal Mission Society.

Miss Gladys Weber (B.S. 1944), R. N., was elected to the board of directors of the New York State Nurses Association, after serving as president of District 17 in Rockland County. She is also a member of the state committee for social studies of the

American Association of University Women.

A Wilson, N. C. boy scout leader, Malcolm D. Williams (Ed.D. 1951) was recently elected general divisional chairman. For leadership and devoted service, he was presented with the Silver Beaver Award, Scouting's highest tribute. Dr. Williams is a supervisor of Wilson's city schools.

R. W. Chadwick (A.M. 1924) is dean of Gogebic Junior College, Ironwood, Mich-

igan. The college is developing general education courses in communication and social sciences. Mr. Chadwick was, for twenty-one years, dean of Duluth Junior College.

Boston University has announced the appointment of John Oakley Gawne (A.M. 1947) as acting director of its Counseling Services. His responsibilities include the University Counseling Service for students and community, the reading clinic, the speech clinic, and related services.

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TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

Leadership in Guidance*

ESTHER LLOYD-JONES

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

IF education is to perform adequately the tasks that now lie before it, it must have leadership. But there are differing ideas of leadership, each of which affects the way the individual operates. It is important, therefore, to examine these ideas as we consider the problem of leadership preparation. The following analysis relates to the field of guidance.

THE STATUS LEADER

Leadership often brings to mind the familiar concept of hierarchy. The leader is above others in status. He is someone who is permitted to impose his will on those beneath him. Often there are others above one leader in the hierarchy who serve as *his* leaders and to whose will and judgment he must be subject. This pattern of social organization is so familiar that it is only now beginning to be ex-

amined in terms of essential human relationships and social dynamics.

Here leadership includes the idea of dominance and submission. Line and staff organization in the military services and business, as well as in education, uses this idea of leadership. We speak of echelons, power, and authority, and subconsciously we think of "who is over whom and under whom else" and therefrom derive our ideas as to who is leader of whom. Essentially this concept is authoritarian. It usually embodies feelings of aggression and dependency.

There are many in the field of guidance who have never questioned this concept of leadership. They tend to dwell heavily on the importance of organization and to stress the importance of clear understanding of who should do exactly what. They spend much effort on structure, lines of communication, functions to be performed, and formalized procedures.

*Adapted from a lecture presented at the Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos, Rio de Janeiro, November, 1951.

Appropriate dependency attitudes are rewarded in this hierarchical system of leadership. Participation in planning and decision-making may be encouraged on one's own level. It seems clear, however, that those at the top have the best vista and are therefore the leaders to whom responsibility for "top policy" must be entrusted.

I am not by any means advocating that this concept of leadership could or should be abolished; I am merely remarking that much of our thinking about leadership is in these terms. Later I shall inquire whether this is the concept of leadership on which we wish to rely to bring about a "deeper teaching" in education.

THE "EXPERT" LEADER

Another concept into which we move easily when we think of leadership is the concept of expertness. Quite different from the idea of hierarchy, it fits nicely into programs of education based on the fact that each of us possesses abilities and aptitudes in different amounts. We think of the youngster who "leads" in mathematics but is slow in languages; of the boy who is good in athletics but is poor in his studies; of the girl who has fine character but is not beautiful.

If hierarchical leadership has in it something of a vertical idea, then expertness is more of a horizontal concept. It is associated with our idea of the normal curve: that every trait or ability is possessed in measurable amount; that a few people have practically nothing or very little of a certain measurable trait or ability; that a great many have "an average amount"; that only a few have a great deal of that trait or ability. We are able then to identify as "leaders" those who possess the greatest amounts of desirable traits or abilities. We say "they are way out front" in some particular respect—a

kind of horizontal concept of leadership.

This idea of leadership as expertness in particular traits or abilities often results in the specialist system in its most extreme and difficult form. To operate this system it is necessary to break guidance down into its component parts so that expertness can be more thoroughly developed in its many different aspects. Then the problem becomes one of *how to operate the experts* so that the deepest needs of children are adequately served.

If the idea of hierarchy is associated with feelings of dominance and submission in basic human relationships, the idea of expertness is associated with the desire to draw away from others along some scale of abilities or knowledge or skills where others cannot easily follow. At least some of the difficulty we experience in trying to get experts to work together in cooperative relationship is caused by their basic feelings and their training, which make them want to work alone.

THE "ATLAS" LEADER

Then there is an "Atlas" type of leader, who sees himself essentially as the center of gravity in a field of social forces. This type of leader trusts only himself and his own way of doing things. He takes himself very seriously. It is not easy for him to criticize his own ideas or ways of doing things. His is an ego-centered leadership. He doesn't trust others to take responsibility. He oversees everyone very closely and directly. He tends to hold very high standards for whatever he himself attempts to do and is compulsive and obsessive in carrying out his purposes. He may be able to delegate authority, but he can delegate only when he can closely supervise those who will carry out his wishes. He has no interest or delight in seeing responsibility de-

velop people, he entrusts responsibility sparingly and then only insofar as he is sure those to whom he entrusts it will do the job exactly as he himself would do it.

THE CHAIN-REACTION LEADER

Lewin, Jennings, Bavelas, MacGregor, Rogers, and others describe leadership as a part of a dynamic group process. The chain-reaction leader believes that the highest function of leadership is to cultivate growth in other people. He endeavors to cultivate growth in others not only because he derives satisfaction from seeing individuals develop fully and believes it is socially important for them to do so, but also because he wishes them to develop ability to release growth in those with whom they in turn will come in contact.

The Atlas type of leader sincerely believes that he himself is the best judge of what is right and that he personally must see that what he considers best should come to pass. The chain-reaction leader working with a group of students, for example, knows that the group can discover through their own cooperative activity what is best and how to do it far more surely than he alone can do. Furthermore, he knows that only by this process can groups and individuals grow in their capacities to take responsibility, to use initiative, to be creative, to become finer, stronger people. He gives close attention, therefore, to the *process* by which they can most surely find such growth.

Not only in his leadership with groups, but also in his relationships with individuals he takes this same approach. He knows that the problems another individual will face (and especially in our rapidly changing world) will not be the same problems that he has learned how

to solve. He is therefore more concerned that groups and individuals should learn how to work at the solution of problems than he is that they should learn his answers.

PREPARING LEADERS

How does one who wishes to work in guidance become a chain-reaction leader? Many who become "leaders" in guidance are motivated by subconscious or even conscious desires to climb to positions of leadership and then, from their vantage points in the hierarchy, to direct and command elements which, taken together, are thought to constitute a guidance program. Others, essentially scholars, are eager to learn all about a small enough fraction of the educational and guidance fields so that they can feel the superiority that complete knowledge and command can give. Still others have an almost evangelistic drive to tidy up people and situations and, by their own earnest efforts, to bring order out of what seems to them educational, organizational, and personal chaos.

It is so easy for people to learn ideas as words and for intellect to function while feelings are left untouched. For years employers have complained that beginning personnel workers are "learned" about guidance—they know all the words about it and can talk it well—but in critical human relations situations they cannot skillfully practice what they know intellectually. Their own ways of feeling and behaving effectually blot out their intellectual knowledge. Feeling, thinking, and behaving have not been brought into harmony.

This is a very difficult challenge for teachers in a graduate school, especially those of us working exclusively on a guidance level. Our stock in trade is lecturing. We like to deal in ideas; we like

to talk and to have those to whom we lecture use words back at us in a way that appeals to us as thoughtful and reasonable; we especially approve of our students' parroting the words and ideas we have first formulated. We know that ideas have power in and of themselves and we tend, especially on a graduate level, to maintain quite stubbornly that instilling the student with ideas should produce an effective professional worker.

In an approach to this problem we at Teachers College are concentrating on several efforts: (1) group development courses; (2) situational cases; (3) field work and internships; and (4) student evaluation in the educational program in each course and in the department as a whole.

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Much attention has been given to group approaches to guidance as well as to individual counseling. Formerly the emphasis was to a great extent on program content and the efficient administration of recreation, extracurricular activities, social life and student participation in government. Slowly the emphasis has been changing to the educational values that inhere in such rich human relations situations as are represented by extracurricular activities, dormitory living, parties, and student councils as well as in the student-student relationships and the student-faculty relationships aspects of every classroom. Furthermore, instead of merely talking about the matter in a theoretical way, we now not only attempt to practice a group work approach in classes and in the more informal life of the department but have evolved a sequence of courses in what we call "group development."

In the group development courses the aim is to give students as much guided

experience as possible in the dynamics of group formation and growth. Mature students who probably have never seen one another before are divided in these classes into groups of from six to ten members. They are given no topic to discuss; they are merely encouraged to see from watching their own behavior how groups form and how they behave, how each member influences the character of the group, and what the group does to each member. They meet about two hours a week for thirty weeks to make this study. Usually a group starts off rather gaily. It knows what to do for the first one or two meetings: each person introduces himself and asks polite, friendly questions; all understand that they are "getting acquainted." As long as this goes on everyone enjoys a nice cozy experience, but it can't continue indefinitely.

While this small group process develops, the entire group also meets for two hours each week. Here the instructors teach them some techniques for keeping track of their own group and individual-in-the-group behavior. They are encouraged to rotate record-keepers in their small groups and they are taught, as record-keepers, how to keep track of who communicates with whom in the group, how many times, about what, with what apparent feelings and attitude, and with what group results. Patterns are developed from these records of the kinds of relationships that seem to be forming in the groups. After each small and large group session there is a subjective rating by each person of how he himself felt while the group process was going on. Individual members take turns in summarizing these individual reactions, comparing them with the more objective records, and reporting them to the group.

In such an experience, carried on through thirty weeks with continuous analysis and discussion of one's own experiences and with mounting theoretical understanding, a great deal of learning takes place. Every effort is made to carry this learning over into all other group situations of which the students are currently members. They serve as observers in other classes, in committees, in dormitory corridor groups, in student councils, and often try to report their observations to these other groups.

Perhaps the most important outcome, however, is the inescapable learning about one's own habitual reactions to other kinds of people, one's feelings about oneself as compared with other people's feelings about themselves, and the effect that one wants to have and seems to have on others within the tight confines of a group that must attempt to hold together over a period of time. Tape recordings are made and occasionally played back and studied by individuals or by the group as a whole to see just how the process sounds when viewed *ex post facto*.

It is hoped that this sort of training will contribute to more self-understanding on the part of our students, a deeper understanding of the way they play their parts in human relations, and that *our* students will be able to help *their* students to learn similar types of understanding as they work later in all kinds of human relations situations.

SITUATIONAL CASES

It occurred to us at Teachers College several years ago that we might be able to give our students much more realistic experience in the situations they would face in their professional work. Accordingly, we have had prepared in written form some unfinished problem situations

in which the dean or other guidance worker was placed firmly on a spot. These situational cases taken together now constitute a library of cases which we are using in training.

We divide our major course for guidance workers into groups of about eight each. Each week these groups are given two situational cases to work on. At first the students feel there must be some "right" solution, but, as each group reports its analysis of the case, the possible "solutions" confronting the dean, and what ideally should be done, recognition grows that there is no one best solution—that certain principles should be kept in mind, but that the outcome in each case depends upon the dean's own skill in human relations.

And as the groups of eight seek to discover how each of them would perform when confronted with such a problem, again each student learns much about himself. He discovers, for instance, that he would compromise situations far oftener than would anyone else in his group. He begins to wonder why he seems to find this the best way. Or he may take what he would call "a strong position" more consistently than anyone else seems to find necessary or desirable. Or perhaps he is more mindful of the necessity for building power, maintaining prestige, respecting the hierarchy than are the others. The others may have more concern for the learnings that are taking place in the students than they have for the hierarchical relationships of the staff. Occasionally the group members play the parts of the various characters involved in the situational case. This serves to make even more real the human relations of the hypothetical situation, and also gives each person an opportunity to try out how he would really tend to behave.

FIELD WORK

A third method for developing leadership which we have used for many years, but which we are now trying hard to improve, is the method of field work and internships. We have selected schools, colleges, community centers, and so on where we think the best work in guidance is being carried on. We ask the cooperation of the guidance workers in these situations to let our students observe and work with them for from one-half day each week for at least fifteen weeks, to two or even three days a week over a period as long as thirty weeks. We know that there are very valuable learnings from such opportunities. However, we require each student participating in such field work to meet with no more than ten other students and with a member of our own staff for at least two hours each week to evaluate what is being learned and to exchange experiences. Furthermore, a member of our staff visits at least once a semester each situation in which one of our students is working to talk with the supervisor there and to observe the total situation. Occasionally we invite all of the guidance workers in these field work and internship situations to participate as a group in the evaluation of the plan we are following.

EVALUATION

We have been experimenting for some years with having our students continuously evaluate the program of training which they were experiencing, and having representatives meet with us weekly to discuss and plan how the experiences might be improved. Toward the end of each semester students from each class volunteer to use the best methods of evaluation they have learned and then as

a committee to report to the class the gist of what the class feels have been the stronger and weaker aspects of their experiences. They use questionnaires, polls, "post-meeting evaluation" sheets, analyses of participation spread, frequency of participation records, unfinished sentences, "logs," and so forth to try to get for the class as a whole some deeper understanding of the kinds of learnings that have been developing in the individual members of the class from all their multiple experiences.

I will confess that at first it took a bit of courage to sit and listen to such a committee report for an hour or two the summary of our work together. The strong and weak contributions of the staff are, of course, an important feature in any such evaluation. The outcomes of such a process, however, are so very valuable in so many ways that personally I face it now with not the slightest flinching. Even when the committee reports quite clearly just how it is thought I might mend my ways and how I might correct some weakness, I now realize that by my example perhaps members of the class are learning to submit themselves to the same kind of evaluative help from those with whom they will work later on. Furthermore, it is always clear that such reports are presented in a spirit of the best cooperation with a clear desire to help and improve the process which they have been trying to use for their own growth. No instructor can possibly know as well as those who experience them just what effects his efforts are having.

SUMMARY

If, as Toynbee has suggested, this is the first age since the dawn of civilization in which people have dared to think it practicable to make the benefits of

civilization available to the whole human race; and if we are to interpret the "benefits of civilization" not so much in terms of material benefits, conveniences, and possessions as in terms of such attributes as respect for human dignity and the worth of each person, individual freedom, knowledge of the importance of cooperation and the ability to implement

cooperation with skill, and the full development of the capacities of each person both for his own enjoyment and for the betterment of society, then it is of vital importance that we educators should "think big." Not only must we think ahead and beyond, but we must also try to see how step by step we can move toward our objectives.

Research As Educational Experience

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GRADUATE scholars are often heard to remark, "I have finished my doctoral program—except for writing a dissertation." This suggests that many American students consider the dissertation and the research requisite to it to be irrelevant to the main business of education. Perhaps this is not strange in view of the fact that most of the student's time has previously been spent in mastering facts, ideas, and theories, and hence he feels ill at ease when faced for the first time with a research problem.

Formerly, a dissertation was required for any academic degree, but in most colleges today the bachelor's essay is no longer required, and the master's essay has been made optional. In a few universities, even the doctor's dissertation has tended to become perfunctory because, as one well-known administrator remarked recently, "Most of these students are not going to be research workers after leaving school."

ULTIMATE PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

The recent minimizing of student research seems to be the result of a fairly general belief that the dissertation is an outworn academic tradition rather than a fundamental educational experience. At this point, it might well be asked whether the ultimate purpose of education is to learn facts or to learn how facts are obtained, evaluated, and classified; whether

it is to obtain knowledge or to discover how knowledge is derived; whether it is to know the truth or to learn how to distinguish truth from error.

Modern man is no smarter than the Crô-Magnard of 100,000 B.C., but he is almost infinitely more advanced. Is his advancement the result of knowing more than his ancient precursor, or does it stem from his having learned to think in a manner which enables him to harness his environment to an increasing degree? If the latter, then it seems probable that modern civilization is the product of a new way of thinking. In that case, education should teach this new way of thinking rather than merely purveying the new facts which have been uncovered. This new way of thinking is commonly known as the scientific method.

TWO METHODS OF THINKING

There are, of course, only two methods of rational thinking, the dogmatic and the scientific.¹ The first of these is based upon authoritarianism in one form or another, that is, the authority of the mass mind, of tradition, of a well-established institution, of the printed page, or

¹ Contrary to vulgar opinion, there is nothing mysterious about science; the word is derived from the Latin verb *scire*, meaning "to know." Nothing save what is actually known enters into the basic reasoning of the scientist. Where it is necessary to deal with unknowns, tentative hypotheses are temporarily employed until additional verified facts can be obtained.

of social acceptance or custom. Authority of whatever kind draws a circle inside of which reposes all truth, and outside of which lies error or untruth. In thinking or reasoning, any starting point will serve, just so long as it lies inside the circle. By the same token, the conclusion reached must likewise always fall within the circle (the dogmatic perimeter) of truth. Rules of logical reasoning and discourse are observed as closely as possible in progressing from starting point to conclusion (see Figure 1), but wherever any line of reasoning seems to move toward a conclusion lying outside the dogmatic circle of truth, it is either promptly inhibited or else reconciled to dogma by a system of apologetics. Miraculous interventions by deities and sub-deities into natural law are accepted, and extra-natural or catastrophic data are permitted (and even utilized) to reinforce conclusions derived through logical analysis.

Scientific thinking, on the other hand,

has no circle of authority or outer circumference of truth. It does have a *starting point* and a *method* (see Figure 2). The former is of utmost importance because, for any given problem, only one point of departure is possible. This is true for the reason that the point in question is determined by mathematical relationship (axioms) and philosophical relationship (the nature of reality). In thinking scientifically one moves away from this starting point or intellectual bench mark by careful observation and by measurement or evaluation of fact. Progress in thinking is guided by a very rigorous methodology consisting of scrupulous attention to the principle of cause-and-effect, to the natural laws of matter and energy, and to the logical controls over deduction and induction, and by the maintenance of an objective attitude and suspended judgment. No exceptions, no deviations, no setting aside of galactic, terrestrial, or sub-molar laws are given credence. If his starting point or

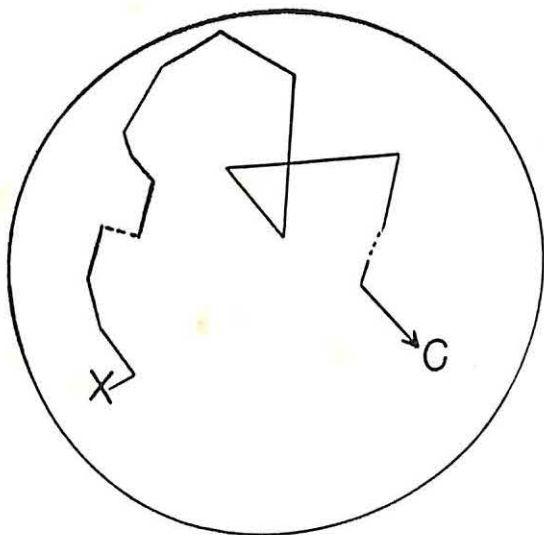


FIGURE 1

Dogmatic thinking showing progression of reasoning from premise X to conclusion C within the circle of truth.

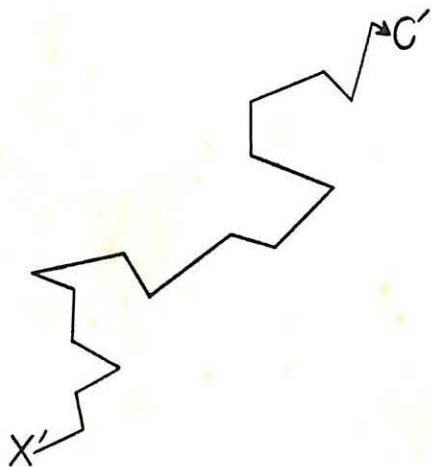


FIGURE 2

Scientific thinking showing progression of reasoning from premise X' to conclusion C' by means of verified facts with reference to no predetermined circle of truth.

premise be correct and his process be accurate, then the individual is safe in accepting his conclusion. Indeed, he is obliged to accept it, no matter how much at variance with his hope, faith, and previous belief it may be.

FRUITS OF SCIENTIFIC THINKING

The process of scientific thinking is a reliable one. It has led to the development of mechanics, to the harnessing of stupendous amounts of power, to the splitting of the molecule and the atom, to the understanding of the biotic realm, the realm of the human mind, and the realms of medical and surgical science. Finally, it has led to an understanding of the nature of proof and certainty. This has in turn led to a large and increasing understanding of truth and the meaning of life.

The premise and method of scientific thinking are not only authentic and reliable, but also productive. They have moved the world from the Dark Ages to a so-called Age of Science, and have literally revolutionized human living. Today, people in almost all parts of the world are quite willing, even eager, to accept the benefits and products of science, but most of these same people are, on the other hand, quite unwilling to believe what scientists tell them. As a consequence, ours is a society in which scientific men's ideas are ridiculed and rejected by most people. And yet the well-being and functioning of society are very largely the result of the thinking of scientists. The fact of the matter is, a politician may govern, a banker may finance, a churchman may preach, a bootblack may shine shoes, and a charwoman may scrub, and all of them earn a good living, in a society which they could not maintain. None of these

people customarily, if ever, think in a scientific manner. It is no wonder, then, that we live in a scientific world ruled by bootblacks' (or bankers') beliefs and ideas. If the common man's thinking could be put on a scientific basis, a new "world" would be created within two or three decades. There is scant chance of such a result, but the possibility of it poses the greatest of all tasks for education.

RESEARCH AND ACADEMIC DEGREES

If the Dark Ages were largely the fruit of the unchallenged supremacy of dogmatic thinking,² then in the present Age of Science far too much educational effort is being expended on learning what others have found out, and far too little in finding out for oneself. The bachelor's and master's degrees have become largely *degrees-in-course*. For the doctor's degree, however, a dissertation placing in written essay form the results of the student's research, remains the ultimate test of those who would become a learned doctor.³ The research dissertation is, therefore, the nascent scholar's own first certified contribution to knowledge.

Any college or university requires that a teacher examine each student before certifying him to receive credit for any course toward the bachelor's degree. It requires that two or more members of the faculty examine each student for the master's degree. And finally, it requires

²The contemporary Moslem world did not undergo any such scientific eclipse as did the nearby but more advantageously located and equipped Christian world.

³*Doctor* is a Latin noun meaning one educated enough to enable him to teach (derived from the Latin verb *docere*, to teach). The title of *doctor* has been incorrectly appropriated by medical men, osteopaths, chiroprodists, dentists, and other workers in the healing arts.

that three or more teachers, of professorial grade, examine each candidate for the doctor's degree. It is traditional for such men to administer and safeguard the doctor's degree carefully and jealously. Despite the traditions surrounding the awarding of doctoral degrees and the general conscientiousness of professors administering the doctorate, it is not uncommon for one department to accuse another of "letting down standards." There is also considerable criticism of one school or college by other schools and colleges within the same university. Almost invariably this consists of criticism of younger faculties by older, longer-established faculties. The criticism of Education by Arts and Sciences is particularly vigorous and widespread, but the criticism of one department by another within each of these faculties is also surprisingly common.

When one department or faculty accuses another of accepting substandard dissertations or of granting "soft" doctor's degrees, the distrust usually rests upon a belief that bona fide research is not being done, or perhaps is not even possible, in the field being criticized. This belief, in turn, is an outgrowth of a far too narrow definition of research.⁴

WHAT IS RESEARCH?

In the early universities of Europe and America, research consisted almost entirely of the examination of documents in the classics and the other humanities, law, and history. Later, the physical sciences developed rapidly, and with them the experimental laboratory method of discovering new knowledge achieved prominence in the universities.⁵

⁴ It is seemingly as frequently misdefined as it is mispronounced, (the layman usually accents the first syllable, whereas the researcher accents the latter, i.e. *re-search*).

⁵ For many decades, the older faculties re-

Accordingly, today there is current in many universities the belief that dissertations, to be valuable and worth while, must be based upon either documentary study or laboratory experiment. This misconception regarding "real research" arises out of the undue prestige of history and the humanities⁶ (for traditional reasons) and of the physical sciences (because of their impressive application to engineering and business within the profit system, and because of their service as handmaiden to the military arts).

Actually, research is a much broader and more varied process than is commonly believed even by many competent scholars. In 1906, *Webster's International Dictionary* defined research as "Diligent inquiry or examination in seeking facts or principles."⁷ Forty-two years later, *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* defined it as "Critical and exhaustive investigation or experimentation having for its aim the revision of accepted conclusions, in the light of newly discovered facts."⁸

RESEARCH, SCIENCE, AND REALITY

How reliable is research? It may be categorically answered that research is, in the opinion of the writer, the most reliable aspect of modern human culture. It is closely related to invention. Indeed, research might be defined as the "art of invention," and it is applicable to the inventing of ideas and generalizations as

fused to admit the sciences to equality. At Oxford, as late as the First World War, the sciences were contemptuously referred to as *the stinks*.

⁶ There is considerable justification for regarding history as one of the humanities rather than as a social science.

⁷ *Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language*, Fourth Edition, 1906, page 1224. G. and C. Merriam, Springfield, Mass.

⁸ *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Fifth Edition, 1948, page 847. G. and C. Merriam.

well as to the creation of tools and gadgets. Any process which is both productive and accurate enough to yield the modern tool, machine tool, and machine, which is imaginative enough to create penicillin, giant telescopes, and radio-knife surgery, and which is discerning enough to harness the Hertzian wave and to split the atom is reliable enough to be depended upon in the realm of ideas and beliefs. To disbelieve this would be, of course, to challenge the validity and dependability of human thought. Such a challenge is not so improbable as might be assumed. David Hume, the Scottish philosopher (1711-1776), very directly challenged the reality of the mind. More than one hundred years later, Mary Baker Eddy⁹ followed Hume's lead and challenged not only the mind's reality, but the very objectivity of reality itself. Quite the opposite position was taken by René Descartes (1596-1650), who pictured a scientific universe in which everything can be explained rationally and even mathematically. He sounded a distinctly modern note in his contention that reason is the principal source of knowledge.¹⁰ Georg Hegel (1770-1831) went a step further in contending that nothing is unknowable, and that, "Every element of experience is connected with a rational whole." Said Hegel, "It is for philosophy to show how each factor of experience is related to the rational whole to which it belongs."¹¹ Furthermore, he declared that, "This rational whole in its entirety is God or the Absolute." The struggle to know all and the attempt to relate all knowledge to the rational whole

can almost be accepted as a definition of modern research and the scholar's use of the scientific method.

RESEARCH, KNOWLEDGE, AND CERTAINTY

It is this scientific method which gives to man the nearest thing to certainty that he possesses. Knowledge yielded by research and tested by the scientific method is fact; the interrelating of facts by logical synthesis, and the relating of them to a rational whole, comes as close to constituting proof as anything the human mind can ever devise.¹² Such deferential working with data develops in the research worker a very great respect for facts. Moreover, it reduces his amount and degree of certainty to the point where he develops an enormous respect for proof. The layman (and all too often even the layman who has been to college) is almost always ready to argue with facts if they run counter to popular ideas or current dogmas of authoritarian institutions. The research scientist never argues with verified facts (although he may question their meaning or their application) even though they may be a contraversion of his former beliefs and upset his existing values.

RESEARCH AND THE THEORY OF VALUE

The relation of new knowledge to value is an interesting one. In general, there are three theories of value held by those engaged in society's business of education. First, there is the *ecclesiastical theory*, that values come from divine revelation and are universal and unchanging. Second, there is the *classical*

⁹ *Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures*, 1875; *Rudimental Divine Science*, 1891; *Christian Science versus Pantheism*, 1898.

¹⁰ T. W. Wallbank and A. M. Taylor, *Civilization, Past and Present*, p. 42, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 191.

¹² The dialectic technique of thesis-antithesis-synthesis used by Hegel, the mathematician's equation, the logician's syllogism, the physical scientist's controlled experiment are all attempts to develop instruments of proof.

or *historical theory*, that values inhere in human ideas and achievements through the past, and that the principal concern of education is to study the classics or humanities. Third, there is the *scientific theory*, that values are constantly emerging and disappearing through the organic growth and the ecological adjustments and readjustments of human society, that education is therefore an ongoing and continually changing process. Acceptance of any one of these three theories carries implications of considerable gravity. For instance, adherence to the scientific theory of value demands that the educator accept the idea that education is an ongoing process serving changing ends. It also implies that it is less important for the student to learn values than it is for him to learn how values are derived. If this implication be valid, then the preparation of a dissertation is the most important part of the student's entire education, provided, of course, that the dissertation be a demonstration of his ability to do research and of his ability to derive value from doing it.

THE PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

In some instances a research project is a small, compact study undertaken for the purpose of confirming or disproving a hunch or an intuition. In other instances it may be a sizable investigation with many complicated ramifications and with significant implications. To be bona fide research, a study may seek to discover, to locate, to isolate, to measure, to classify, to denominate, to compare, to relate, to interpolate or extrapolate, or to understand. It may not review, compile, distort, describe. It is not ordinarily designed merely to refute or criticize, and it may never seek to prove or support a bias by suppressing evidence or presenting partial evidence.

All research possesses three essential characteristics—a *purpose*, *materials* for study or measurement, and a *method*. The general purposes of all research are to destroy mental stereotypes, to extend human knowledge, and to improve social, business, educational, and scientific techniques and procedures. Most research is directional, that is oriented in a specific direction. This is expectable because of the special interests of the researcher and the climate of opinion and purpose which characterizes the school or other institution where it is done. A much smaller amount is of the kind known as basic research—that is, non-directional research designed to uncover or reveal general truths or fundamental principles. At present, most basic research is being done in the physical sciences, with smaller amounts under way in archaeology and anthropology. Such research is, however, badly needed in the social sciences and even in the humanities.

Most research is an individual matter. In the graduate schools of the universities, all student research is individual study, although the separate student projects may form parts of a large general pattern of interest. Attached to many universities, however, are post-doctoral or faculty group-research projects, such as the present Citizenship Education Project or the wartime Air-Age Education Project at Teachers College. Such group undertakings are also often set up by the Federal Government, as for instance the former National Resources Planning Board. Research, however, is increasingly being done on a large, highly complicated, institutional scale. Examples of institutional research are the Brookings Institution, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Stanford Research Institute, the Population Reference Bureau, the Public Opinion Center, and the U.S. Bu-

reau of Agricultural Economics. Truly, institutional research represents man's invention of the art of invention.

THE MATERIALS FOR RESEARCH

Materials for study or exploration are legitimately of many kinds. In general, they may be grouped into some six categories, as follows:

1. Mechanical apparatus together with physical, chemical, or biotic materials
2. The natural and man-made landscapes in a given portion of the earth
3. Government and private compilations of statistics
4. Writings (such as essays, dissertations, explanations, or comments) by numerous scholars on a given problem, together with systems of cosmology, logic, and philosophy which may serve as intellectual tools
5. Historical documents and records
6. Observations, measurements, opinions, or replies to questions obtained from individuals and groups in a given educational, psychological, or social situation.

THE METHODS OF RESEARCH

The third essential for worth-while research is a creditable method of gathering, analyzing, and evaluating data. Dependable methods are much more numerous than usually envisioned. They range from the direct chorographic methods developed by Jones, Colby, Whittlesey, Hudson, and other American geographers, to the involved philosophical inquiries of Dewey, Kilpatrick, Childs, Butts, and Benne.

In general, there are not one or two but six standard research methods. The first of these is usually known as the *Natural Science Method*. It is experimental, it is prosecuted in the laboratory, and it consists of problem solving

through manual performance. It is, as its name implies, most characteristic of chemistry, physics, and biology, but it is at least partially applicable to a wide range of other disciplines.

Second is the *Geographical Method*. It consists of direct observation of occurrence, distribution, co-association, and concomitance within an area. It seeks to discover (and often to depict cartographically) causal relationship, ecological pattern, and regionalization. It is frequently called the survey or field method. It is most characteristic of geography, but it is used by cultural anthropology, sociology, political science, agricultural economics, soil science, forestry, certain aspects of geology, city and regional planning, and several other kinds of studies.

Third is the *Mathematical Method*. It prefers its materials in the form of recorded or compiled data. It is statistical in procedure and consists of quantitative analysis or measurement. It is widely applied to economics, physical anthropology, educational psychology, astronomy, and mathematics.

Fourth is the *Philosophical Method*. It is sometimes referred to as the syllogistic method, and consists of qualitative analysis through logical and theoretical inquiry. Since it is theoretical and intellectual, it is sometimes dubbed the "arm-chair method." It is mankind's oldest formal method of investigation and has been used successfully through the ages from Aristotle, through Eratosthenes, Bacon, Descartes, and on down to Dewey. It is applicable to any field of knowledge but, because it requires a mature mind for its successful use, it is not much used as a primary method of research, in baccalaureate, magistral, or doctoral dissertations.

Fifth is the *Historical Method*. It is

also variously termed documentary method, library method, or legal method. It has received undue emphasis because nearly all education during medieval and early modern times was oriented to the past. Today a great deal of education still faces the past rather than the present or future, and hence the Historical Method enjoys an exaggerated prestige at the expense of other avenues and instruments of research. It is most characteristic of history, law, political science, linguistics, and literature, but is applicable to certain kinds of studies in all fields.

Sixth is the *Sociological Method*. It gathers its data through interviews, examinations of individuals, or questionnaires. It is occasionally denominated as the clinical or case-study method. These six methods may be tabulated as follows:

<i>Method</i>	<i>Character</i>	<i>Locus Operandi</i>	<i>Modus Operandi</i>
1. Natural Science	Experimental	Laboratory	Manual or problem-solving
2. Geographical	Observational	Field	Survey and recording
3. Mathematical	Statistical	Compiled data	Quantitative analysis or measurement
4. Philosophical	Syllogistic	Intellectual	Qualitative analysis or logical and theoretical inquiry
5. Historical	Documentary	Library	Legal verification
6. Sociological	Case study	Clinical	Interview or questionnaire

PREPARING THE DISSERTATION

Research is commonly misunderstood by the average citizen. Contrary to the usual opinion, it is neither mysterious nor automatic. Unfortunately, it is not even infallible. Data are often inaccurate and, more often, inadequate. Motives and purposes not infrequently become warped or biased. Methods are sometimes mishandled or misapplied. Problems under certain conditions become hackneyed and repetitious. After several studies of the same kind have been done at one

institution or at more than one institution, is a similar study a desirable or even a permissible subject for a graduate dissertation? Is a study which runs counter to society's accepted standards desirable? Is a study which exposes the bias of, or runs counter to the beliefs or pretensions of, a powerful institution such as a church, a veterans' organization, or a patriotic society, desirable or permissible?

For the student who decides to undertake a bit of research culminating in a dissertation which will lead to a degree there are several steps to be followed. First, select a problem that challenges you. Be sure it is big enough to be worth doing and small enough to be do-able. If you do not have a problem then read, think, and converse with your fel-

lows until you do have one. As soon as you have a problem, select a faculty adviser and discuss it with him. Make a general bibliography pertaining to your problem and investigate what data and materials are available. With your adviser's help, decide which method or combination of methods is required by your project. If you do not possess the necessary skills, then enroll for a course dealing with the desired methodology. Next, assemble your faculty advisory committee and start working.

The quality of your research, like the

quality of your education in general, will depend upon you, upon the professors under whose guidance you work, and upon the educational climate in which you perform your labors. Many colleges and universities have handsome buildings and large staffs of professors. Both of these can be purchased by endowment from corporations and grants from legislatures. But not everything which looks like a university actually is one. A real university is a *cultural center*. Some very shabby looking institutions give students the best education. They do so because the men there are able and competent to stimulate students to undertake research, and to advise and guide them in carrying on that research. Many of these institutions have been in the business of education long enough to have built their own atmosphere of freedom of inquiry, and to have learned to defend this from loyalty probes, prying legislatures, super-patriots, and demands from the market place. In such centers of culture, young men and women discover that what one learns from others is not always true, but that what one learns by means of

one's own efforts through the application of the scientific method is more enduring than the learner himself.

SOME INFERENCES

Research is not something to be avoided by the student or delayed and minimized by the professor. It is, instead, a fundamental educational experience.

There is no restriction as to the type of material which may properly form the basis of a dissertation.

There is no preference as to which of the six standard methods of research may be used. The choice depends upon the problem to be attacked and the kinds of materials to be examined.

Research projects usually reflect the peculiar interests of the school in which they are carried out. This is expectable and not improper. They must, however, be original and they must yield extensions of human knowledge.

Dissertations resulting from research studies must be of such quality as to demonstrate that the student can contribute to knowledge as well as learn what others have contributed.

Focus and Function in Group Discussion

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THE literature on the nature of group discussion and "group dynamics" is growing rapidly. In studying this literature and in observing different kinds of group discussions led by professional leaders, I have been struck by a quality of looseness in the structure of the discussions, an absence of focus, and a denial of the psychological realities which characterize a group meeting. In this writer's opinion some of the pivotal assumptions of current thinking, writing, and practice concerning group discussion are unsound.

Fortunately for the present purpose, a series of "selected readings with especial emphasis on group development" has recently been published.¹ The contributors include such writers and discussion leaders as Alex Bavelas, Leland Bradford, Charles Hendry, Ronald Lippitt, Alvin Zander, Kenneth Benne, Herbert Thelen, and Douglas McGregor. Naturally there are differences in approach by the various men. Essentially, however, one discovers in all of them a basic, common, non-functional approach to an analysis of the nature of group methods and development.

I wish to present an alternative, functional approach to group development which calls for a different kind of role for the leader and a different kind of

focus for the discussion. This approach is not new. Social case workers in this country appreciate the achievements of a functional approach to casework. The contributions of faculty and graduates of the Pennsylvania School of Social Work in this area are recognized. During the past decade the functional approach has been extended to group work practice,² to employee counseling,³ and to education.⁴ The analysis which follows is, so far as I know, one of the first attempts to explore the possibility of extending the functional approach to group discussion and "conference" techniques. In a recently published volume the author tried, for the first time, to present the implications of a functional approach for discussion groups.⁵

FOCUS OF DISCUSSION

We shall begin with a quotation from one of the contributions by Benne, Bradford, and Lippitt.

² Helen U. Phillips, "Social Group Work, A Functional Approach," *The Group*, March, 1948; *Achievement of Responsible Behavior Through Group Work Process*, Helen U. Phillips, Ed., University of Pennsylvania School of Social Work, 1950.

³ Nathaniel Cantor, *Employee Counseling, A New Approach to Industrial Psychology*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1945.

⁴ Nathaniel Cantor, *The Dynamics of Learning*, 2nd ed. Foster and Steward, Buffalo, New York, 1950.

⁵ Nathaniel Cantor, *Learning Through Discussion*. Human Relations Films, 443 Delaware Avenue, Buffalo, New York, 1950.

¹ *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*, edited by Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan. The Dryden Press, New York, 1951.

There are two principal dangers to group process. First, the goals of the group may not be clearly seen by either the leader or the member of the group. Second, the goals as set originally may be so rigid that they do not permit a change. This latter change usually comes when the leader is fearful of losing control of the group or when he feels that he has the sole responsibility of seeing that the group comes out with something. *Such a leader tends to suggest goals to groups in the beginning and then questions every alternative point in terms of whether it is in the direction of this original goal which is not to be questioned.* The leader gradually loses his group because they come to feel that he is trying to do their thinking for them. (Italics not in original.)⁶

The same authors state in another article,

The responsibility of leadership is that of making a group aware of its need to set goals before proceeding further and of helping the group find such goals. *Final responsibility lies with the group as a whole.* (Italics not in original.)⁷

These two passages seem to present clearly the point of view of the authors mentioned. But suppose we raise certain fundamental questions: Why does a particular group come together? Why is a particular individual selected or appointed to be the leader of the group?

All of us will agree that it would be absurd for a number of people, say the first ten or fifteen who passed the northeast corner of Broadway at 116th Street in New York City on any day at 9 A.M., to decide they wanted to have a group meeting. It would be just as foolish to flip a coin to decide who the leader of the discussion was to be. This extreme hypothetical case sharpens the issue. There must be a common felt need prior

to a group's formation. People do not come together for serious, formal discussion or activity unless they feel a mutual concern about a specific problem. The authors quoted above would, I believe, agree since they state that "the goals of the group may not be clearly seen by either the leader or the members of the group." The implication is that a goal or goals are dimly perceived by both leader and group. The members of the group sense a certain need concerning which they want clarification or help.

A leader is the professional person representing an agency, an industry, an institution, or a school (or his own expertness in a specific area) which offers a specific service through the leader. Such specific service is offered to those who need and want it. A physically ill person who wants medical assistance ordinarily calls upon a physician, not a lumberjack or an ichthyologist. The community that desires its children to be educated calls upon professional educators to determine the process of educating them. School children who develop behavior difficulties are, in the more alert school systems, referred to the professional school guidance counselor or to a child guidance clinic staffed by professional workers who carry out their designated professional services.

The professional factor in the group discussion process through which desirable group decision and consequent behavior develop is the professional worker. The worker does *not* carry all of the responsibility for what happens in the group he leads nor does he permit the group members to carry the entire responsibility. The leader's job is to perform professionally in his role. His concern is with the movement and direction of the group as a whole as it deals with the external social limitations and with

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 76.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 149.

the psychological developments of the individuals within the group.

The discussion leader operates by defining what service he can offer which meets the needs of the group. He presents the limited alternatives within which his service operates. He carefully and cautiously *holds to the limits* established by the service he offers and the needs are established by the group, that is, the more or less defined needs which initially bring the members of the group together.

Indeed the leader has the responsibility to suggest goals to the group in the beginning. He clarifies for members of the group their purpose in coming together, what kind of help *they think they want*, and how he might help them in that area. The leader, I submit, has the responsibility of structuring the discussion, of watching to see that the discussion remains focused in the direction of the needs and purposes of the meeting.

This is not mechanically and rigidly determined at the outset. A focused discussion is not to be naively identified with a yes-no, question-answer discussion. There is wide latitude in exploration, modification, and redirection so long as all of this occurs within the limits which structure the meeting. The leader discourages anecdotes and other discussion irrelevant to the purposes of the group.

"The leader," our authors remark, "gradually loses his group because they come to feel that he is trying to do their thinking for them." The leader, I have observed, more often loses a group because they feel he has nothing to offer them.⁸ The skilled leader never does the

thinking for the group and he never permits the members of the group to do their own exclusive thinking. He helps them to think in directions other than those they would take if he were not their leader. One is, otherwise, led to wonder what constitutes "leadership" in a group.

FUNCTION OF THE LEADER

Final responsibility, it seems to me, does not lie with the group as a whole. Initial, developing and final responsibility is shared by leader *and* individual group members.

The function of the leader is to interpret and maintain his service, both in content of discussion and in his understanding of group process. He helps the individual members of the group to face problems and come to decisions. He does not resolve their problems or make decisions for them. He represents his *difference* to the group and encourages the group members to reveal their differences. An illustration may clarify what is meant.

A group of teachers met with the writer in a series of seminars to discuss the problem (the "need" which brings the group together) "How to Become a More Skilled Teacher." The leader was invited by the university authorities to lead this group because he is considered competent in supervising teachers and the teachers wanted to learn more about teaching skills.

The first three meetings were concerned with exploring the nature of skilled teaching—so the group of teachers declared. As a matter of recorded

⁸ This observation is supported by a recent study at Harvard University. The members of several discussion groups highly approved of the leader and liked the permissive atmosphere. They complained, however, of the lack of focus and structure of the discussions. They

expressed their desire for the leader to take a more direct and active part in the discussions. (Lauren G. Wispé, "Evaluating Section Teaching Methods in the Introductory Course," *Journal of Educational Research*, November 1951, p. 161.)

discussion the sessions were devoted to the teachers' complaints about parents, pupils, supervisors, principals, and members of the board of education.

Every experienced discussion leader has lived through such confused initial sessions. The group was uneasy, confused, uncertain, and afraid to speak. When encouraged to participate no one quite knew what point to talk to, so the talk was *about* something or other. There was no vital participation because no real challenge of the leader's difference, his defined service, was presented. The group was not held to the purpose of the meetings, namely, to discover how one becomes a skilled teacher.

At the start of the fourth meeting, the following took place:

LEADER. Good evening. I guess we're ready for a continuation of our discussion. (Silence) Perhaps our recorder can remind us where we were at the close of the last meeting?

RECORDER. Well, in general, we had a gripe session. Everyone was complaining about something.

MILDRED. Goodness knows, there's plenty to complain about. After a day like this (it had been a dreary day of continuous rain) I couldn't stand much more of the yak, yak, yak of those kids. (Silence)

LEADER. Mildred, I wonder whether we can make use of what you just said to help all of us explore the problem of discipline. Every teacher has certainly experienced the annoyance and irritation you speak of and we have all reacted many times the way you did. Would you mind, then, to help us all, telling us why you spoke of the kids as "yaking, yaking, yaking."

MILDRED. That's exactly what went on all day. I'm telling you, those kids are a problem.

LEADER. Does anyone want to comment on Mildred's description of her class?

DICK. You mean Mildred resented her pupils' talking?

LEADER. What do you mean, Dick? Would you care to elaborate?

DICK. Well, maybe *we* are the problem and not the pupils.

MILDRED. I'd like to see any of you stand up to keeping thirty-five little lunatics in line.

LEADER. Many of us, Mildred, I'm sure, would have had a tough time today. But isn't the problem of the teacher precisely that of trying to keep her own tensions under control? Not to use the children as an outlet for her needs?

MARY. It seems that kids are always worse when we scold them. They resent us more.

MILDRED. I didn't scold them.

LEADER. Well, Mildred, when you referred to the kids "yaking" all day, wasn't your attitude in the classroom one of impatience with them because you were tired? Just as Mary told us, when she scolds, the kids are worse.

The leader's relationship with the group and Mildred was secure enough so that he could single out Mildred without too much hurt to her. Mildred's personal tensions in her classroom and in the discussion group were not the group's problem. The problem she raised, however, is common to most primary and secondary school teachers. The leader felt justified, therefore, in using Mildred to help the group in the exploration of its problem of discipline.

The leader raises the question of the use of the term "yak." Mildred replies naturally, defensively. The leader maintains focus by returning to the issue of "yaking." Dick picks it up. Mildred resents the statement of Dick. The leader tries to convey his understanding of Mildred's hurt feelings but, nevertheless, continues with the challenge.

The leader holds fast to his function, namely, to help the members, in interaction, to do something to the *skilled*

or professional opposition of the leader. The members must be given the opportunity (the time and place of offering it is of course crucial and mistakes can be made) to assimilate the differences of other group members and the leader. A balance between present organization of feeling and thinking regarding discipline and the different view presented by others may be sought. Mildred, or any other member of the group, is free to reject or criticize and the members and leader must learn to accept her rejection or criticism. However, the challenge or opportunity to achieve a new balance must be presented.

The leader, anchored in his function, his responsibility to offer help in realizing what goes into improved teaching, is protected against the tendencies of the members to trot off in all directions, seeking to run away from the conflict, fear, and pain of reorganization of feeling and attitude.

If there is no challenge, no difference against which or with which one must struggle, no genuine movement involving growth can occur. Creativity is blocked.

The leader helps the group to find balance in assimilating difference. It should be reiterated that he does not force issues or impose his will or conclusions or interpretations upon the group members. He does not *insist* that the group move only in the direction he indicates. The needs of the group he serves are paramount, but not every need. Only those needs are relevant for exploration which relate to the specific help he has been delegated to offer. Members will try to deny the very need they want satisfied. One side of them wants to change, the other side is fearful because genuine change must be accompanied by emotional disturbance.

The leader is aware of this. He, too, will want to have his way. The skilled leader, however, is more able to deal with his difference, his struggles, because he is not afraid to acknowledge his feelings. He must be and, if skilled, is aware of them and hence is in a better position than nonprofessional group members to deal with his conflicts. He can control himself because he is aware of what is happening, accepts it, and need not be defensive or seek justification for felt guilt or resentment.

In brief, the leader deliberately and professionally uses his difference for the sake of the group rather than for his own need satisfaction. By the same token he is prepared to accept the resentment or hostility of the group which often, at first, accompanies his declaration of difference. His chief concern is whether the several group members will profitably use his difference or one another's differences for their growth. The leader must be prepared to accept balance, growth, or rejection. He introduces his difference, he inquires about the direction the group has taken, he supports the differences expressed by others, or challenges likeness at such times as he deems most favorable for the growth of the individual member and the group.

The guilt or fear each of us experiences in being different and in expressing our individual difference in the presence of our peers is the basic factor in preventing group leaders from realizing the role they can play in helping others. It requires profound growth for a leader who possesses creative difference to define himself in *professional* relation to others in such manner that he places his difference at the disposal of others rather than imposing it upon them for his personal satisfactions.

The leader who makes such use of him-

self provides the professional factor in the group discussion. He watches the direction of the discussion with reference to the purposes or goal which brings the group together and the reactions of the individuals within the group. The leader helps by structuring the discussion and holding to the limits established by the specific need of the group and the skilled service he offers. In this limited professional relationship the leader recognizes and responds to the feelings of the group discussants, helping them to relate to him and to one another.

The individual member of the group will fight to maintain his present organization of self, but if he is to become an integrated member of the group, he must relate to the others, assume some responsibility to the group as a whole regarding its declared purpose or objective.

The individual members of the group must meet the external obstacles represented by the limited service of the leader, the latter's difference, the limitations and restrictions of the social, industrial, or educational context in which their group need arose. It is *the process* of meeting these limitations and external obstacles which provides the yeast of growth and the motivation for reorganization of self as a member of a group.

It is to be expected that new adjustments in relating to other group members, to the difference of the leader, and to outside limitations will be accompanied by feelings of discomfort, fear, and even pain. The group members will experience guilt and confusion, or resentment and hostility toward one another and toward the leader. The leader too will experience dislike and confusion toward the members of the group. These feelings are real and have to be faced in order to be controlled and used. Why should everyone like everyone else under

all circumstances? This leads us to the chief difficulty I have experienced in recent writings on group dynamics.

LIKENESS AND DIFFERENCE

The majority of writers consider "consensus" the desideratum of group discussion. For example, we read,

Moreover, the group and its leader have built the expectation that *no* member (*italics in original*) is to be excluded from the thought and action of the group. Thus, the ideal of the group has come to be consensus in decision.

Again,

The expectation which the group is building as to successful group discussion is toward consensus as the only adequate basis for common action.⁹

Finally,

When one subjects himself to the controls and accepts the ideals of a group, he "belongs."¹⁰

If all members do not feel commitment to the same goal, then there will be continuous friction in working, the capacities of some members will be only partially utilized, there will be ambiguity in the evaluations of contributions . . . and there will be minorities that may induce disintegrative forces. For consensus, the alternatives must be discussed or studied or practiced with until one emerges as being clearly advantageous.¹¹

If I correctly understand these statements, the writers in question believe that democratic values are enhanced and preserved by strong "we-feeling." Frustration of individual members is to be avoided. Grievances are to be forestalled.

⁹ *Op. cit.*, p. 81 (Benne, Bradford, Lippitt).

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 86 (quoting K. Lewin and P. Grabbe).

¹¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 94 (H. A. Thelen).

It seems to me these attitudes imply a denial of democratic faith in people. Why must consensus be reached in order for one to join with others in an activity? So many of the group discussion analysts and leaders emphasize the need for democratic *process* and democratic *goals* in the activity of groups. They place a premium on likeness, identification, consensus. This is a denial of democracy as an ethical ideal, and a distortion of psychological reality. Consensus, that is, *genuine* agreement and like-mindedness, is certainly a desirable objective when it *is* consensus. It is a healthy, legitimate goal, but one rarely achieved by a group of people who represent considerable differences, personal biases, different backgrounds of interest, and so forth. What often passes for consensus is submission to or fear of majority opinion, unwillingness to be responsible for difference, unwillingness to assume the risks involved in an independent position. (It is after consensus has been reached, that the gossip, criticism, and frustration are released in the relative safety of the conference halls or coffee shop.)

Democracy, political or personal, thrives on difference. Indeed the acid test of respect for others is one's ability to abide difference. Respect for others means respect for difference, since "others" are not like you. Liking those who are like you requires no effort. To accept genuine difference, that is, to accept others who feel, think, or act in ways you do not approve of and in situations where *you* are involved is the test of respect for others. Compromise, adjustment, balance, accommodation, and disagreement, as well as consensus, characterize hygienic human relations both in the process of development and in the pursuit of goals.

The desire for only consensus is also

psychologically unrealistic. The group is not the only reality. When a group strives solely for consensus it becomes a stumbling block depriving the individual members or subgroups of the strength to meet outside situations and circumstances. The members of a group acting independently or in smaller groups feel lost without the support of the group to which they have become accustomed and upon which they have become too dependent. When a group becomes too like-minded the individual members cannot move easily without group support. The members acting on their own fear become lost.

Social living, pursuing group objectives, carrying out group purposes away from the sheltering support of like-mindedness bring individual differences into conflict. When the individual runs into difference he cannot easily find balance. He is accustomed to consensus. He cannot adjust to *partial* success or *partial* failure. He wants consensus or he won't carry on. He is blocked when he is crossed. He hasn't learned, in the group, to be responsible and comfortably accept his own differences or to accommodate himself to the differences imposed by his group.

Consensus, as the ideal, is a false and unrealistic objective. The group consisting of different individuals agrees on the one fundamental postulate of respecting one another's rights. Everyone agrees to permit anyone to disagree. Out of differences the members learn to weigh, to balance, to divide, to go along with others even if only partially satisfied, to go along without necessarily being in full agreement, and even, at times, to go along when one is in disagreement. One submerges independent difference for the sake of the group. This is living with likeness *and* difference.

Life demands continuous partialization, and the well-adjusted man must always be ready to live by a continuous partial paying off, without wanting to preserve or give out his whole ego undivided in every experience.¹²

A group needs to be functionally structured and to have its limits defined. The limits are found between the needs of the group and the services of the leader in meeting those needs. Only through such focus can confusion be narrowed and the group helped to discover how to reach its objectives. The final responsibility for determining goals lies not with the group as a whole, but

¹² Otto Rank, *Will Therapy*, p. 135. A. Knopf and Co., New York City.

with the leader and the group. The leader who is professional (and such skill is not acquired merely in a three-weeks summer workshop or by taking a course in "group observer" or "group dynamics") focuses the discussion, watches the movement and direction of the group, encourages both likeness *and* difference in others, and opposes the group with his own difference. He does not strive for consensus or for disagreement. He helps the members to discover their strengths and their weaknesses, their similarities and their differences, so that they may more profitably learn to relate to one another in carrying forward their professed goals in a spirit of compromise, partially satisfied, partially dissatisfied, but willing to work together.

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Fifth Supplement: January–December 1951

EARLIER sections of this *Register* appeared in the *Teachers College Record* as follows: volume 1: January 1935–March 1, 1945 in the November and December 1945 issues; First Supplement: March 1945–December 1946 in the March 1947 issue; Second Supplement: January 1947–December 1948 in the March 1949 issue; Third Supplement: January–December 1949 in the March 1950 issue; Fourth Supplement: January–December 1950 in the March 1951 issue.

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672. GOLDSMITH, EDWARD LEO
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673. GÓMEZ, LAURA
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674. GOODMAN, DAVID
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675. GOVERNALI, PAUL VINCENT
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679. HADLEY, WILLIAM MOORE
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680. AL-HAFIDH, NURI ABDUL SALAM
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681. HALL, GERTRUDE MANCHESTER
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682. HARBIN, CECIL KOONCE
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705. KHADDOURI, ROSE KHADDOURI
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706. KIAH, LYCURGUS CALVIN
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707. KIELY, LAWRENCE JOHN
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721. LEPPERT, ELLA CATHERINE
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723. LEVERIDGE, DON RAYMOND
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724. LIVINGSTON, ROBERT CLARENCE
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736. MANN, ARTHUR FRANK
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745. MURRAY, NORMAN JAMES METCALFE
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746. NEWELL, CLOIS FRANK
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747. NORRIS, ROBERT BAYLESS
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749. NOTHDURFT, IVAN HENRY
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750. OLIVER, GILBERT LEWIS
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751. ORE, EDWIN FRANCIS
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757. PAUL, MANUEL DEVAVARAM
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758. PEASE, JOSEPH MORGAN
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759. PENN, ELIZABETH GOODE
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762. PINEAULT, JOHN LOUIS
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763. PLUMPTON, RUSSELL ANNIS
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764. PRESTWOOD, ELWOOD LEWIS
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765. PRITZKAU, PHILO T.
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766. PRYOR, ROBERT EARLE
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768. RATHBONE, FRANK SLOTHART
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770. ROBERTS, RALPH MYRON
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771. ROBINSON, CARL LAWRENCE
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772. ROE, DONALD STANDLY
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773. ROTHSCHILD, BOB KAHN
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775. RUFF, WESLEY KERBY
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776. RUSALEM, HERBERT
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777. SAMPSON, JAMES JOSEPH
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778. SCANLON, DAVID GEORGE
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779. SCARBOROUGH, COMER LEE
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780. SCHWARTZ, HERBERT
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781. SCULLY, MARK FINNEY
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782. SENSENBAUGH, JAMES ALVIN
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790. STUBBS, DAVID CARSON
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791. SWENSON, HELEN JEAN
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792. TANGER, FREDERICK EBY
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793. TEEL, DWIGHT
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794. THEVAOS, DENO GEORGE
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795. THOMAS, GEORGE ISAIAH
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796. TILLINGHAST, CHARLES LYELL
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797. TIPTON, JAMES HARRISON
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798. TOMPKINS, VIRGIL EVERETT
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799. TULLY, MARY ANDERSON
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800. TWICHELL, WILLIAM SEYMOUR
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801. VARKI, KODIYAT V.
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802. VERBURG, WALLACE ALBERT
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803. WALDSTEIN, DANIEL
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804. WALLACE, VERNON ARDEN
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805. WALLING, WILBER DONALD
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806. WALTER, MURRAY GEORGE
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12 at the Garden City High School,
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807. WALTON, CHARLES WESLEY
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808. WASSON, MARGARET
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809. WEINER, MATTHEW
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school district. 1951.
810. WEINSTEIN, ALFRED BERNARD
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811. WELCH, DOROTHY JULE
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tate purposeful pupil activity. 1951.
812. WELLINGTON, JEAN
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813. WELLS, DOROTHY ESTELLE
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814. WESTCOTT, HOWARD EDMOND
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the Portland public high schools. 1951.
815. WHEATON, GORDON ARTHUR
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816. WHITE, JAMES R.
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the establishment and operation of
programs. 1951.
817. WHITFIELD, POWELL
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818. WILLHOITE, EARL
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819. WILLIAMS, MALCOLM DEMOSTHENESE
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and learning in the Negro schools
located in Wilson, North Carolina,
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and teacher common understanding of
more effective concepts of teaching
and learning. 1951.
820. WINEBRENNER, DANIEL KENNETH
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1951.
821. WOLFFER, WILFRED CYRUS
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buildings in New York State. 1951.
822. WOOD, CECIL HENRY
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the West Point curriculum. 1951.
823. WROTEN, JAMES DAUSEY
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1951.
824. YANG, SHU-HSUIN
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tion of American English with special
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of Mandarin Chinese. 1951.
825. YOST, WILLIAM JOHN
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of Warsaw, North Carolina, better to
meet the needs and interests of the
children. 1951.
826. ZIEGFELD, ERNEST HERBERT
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education. 1951.

827. ZIPPER, JOSEPH HENRY
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1951.
828. ZUCKERMAN, MARTIN
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understanding of the work of the
schools in Ramapo Central District
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829. ZWEIBACH, SOL ISAAC
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cipals. 1951.

Doctor of Education Project Reports

RAYMONA E. HULL. Symbolic Awareness in the Reading of Fiction: Exploratory Studies with Students in the New York State Institute at Canton.*

This project attempts to uncover some of the problems encountered in developing symbolic awareness in the reading of fiction by technical institute students in the "North Country" of New York State. These students are frequently described as "hand-minded" and retarded readers.

The instructor's specific aims in setting up a unit in fiction were to discover: (1) whether a new type of approach would encourage retarded readers to read more; (2) whether a unit which links reading with the visual aspect of the movies would enable students to read with greater understanding; (3) whether such reading would arouse in the students a greater appreciation for their own and other ways of living in America; and (4) whether fiction is a good means of alerting students to the symbolic factors in communication which the Communication Skills course seeks to make clear.

Since many of these students will go to work in urban centers where the demands made on them will often be on a "symbol level" rather than on the "thing level" to which they have been accustomed, the stress on symbolic awareness has a very practical basis.

An experimental unit in fiction, covering

*The manuscripts of the Doctor of Education Project Reports reviewed in *THE RECORD* are on file in the Library of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Because of space limitations it is not possible to publish the digests of all the Reports. The ones printed here, however, represent a variety of areas. A complete list of authors and titles of the Reports is published annually in *THE RECORD*.

from four to six weeks, was carried out with four sections of students—two of girls in home economics, two of boys in agriculture. Materials included short stories from various magazines, and the novels *Ethan Frome* and *My Antonia*.

The instructor used individual readings and reports and group work to give students practice in observing the "symbols-of-culture" aspects of food, clothing, geographical features, and speech patterns, and their arrangement in patterns to form composite symbols of the way of life being studied.

Each student also worked out a list of important symbols for the characters, setting, and plot of the novel he read. Lastly, he identified key symbols for the whole book.

In the detailed account of procedures the project includes: all the questions used for reports and tests, samples of individual and group reports, tabulations of test answers, replies to questionnaires about the method used in the unit.

The project also describes the program in Communication Skills suggested for all institutes, the program in Communication Skills at the Canton Institute, and the student personnel represented in this study, together with a summary of their reading interests.

The conclusion drawn by the instructor was that fiction is a good medium for developing symbolic awareness when the work is carefully planned. The assets revealed by the exploratory work of this unit were that it developed symbolic awareness even in a short time; it stimulated interest because of its novelty; it provided a systematic way of studying a novel which necessitated critical thinking; it helped students learn to interpret what they read; it provided suitable

material for developing symbolic awareness because of the highly symbolic nature of fiction itself.

The problems encountered which need more work done on them before symbolic awareness can be highly developed in students of this kind are: providing more motivation for reading from the visual aspect of the movies; finding reading material to fit the interests of all students, not just the girls; providing experiences to develop in students symbol-mindedness in place of mere object-mindedness; bridging the gap from traditional educational practices to newer practices, especially in Communication Skills; and searching for more objective ways to measure symbolic awareness.



NORMAN J. M. MURRAY. Proposals and Recommendations for Educational Deferments.*

The present international crisis has produced in the United States a situation of partial mobilization that may last over a period of many years. During this time of partial mobilization it will be necessary for all of our young men to give a period of service to their country. The nature and timing of this proposed period of service threaten to conflict with our national need for highly educated and trained young men who are specialists in the sciences, professions, and other fields of learning. Many suggestions have been made concerning how to overcome the conflict between the need for national service and the immediate need for highly skilled specialists in all fields without seeming to favor one group and to penalize the other. This project proposes a plan for a realistic, democratic solution to the problem of educational deferments, including proposals for the identification, training, and obligation of those deferred.

A historical study was made of the problem as it has been encountered by the United States, England, and Russia. An analysis was made of the present practices

in these countries. A study was also made of the principal plans and proposals for educational deferments which have been before Congress and the public and of public reaction to educational deferments and to these plans and proposals.

The plan proposed in this project report provides for educational deferments at our colleges and universities in the national interest. It suggests that a special civilian commission be set up to determine manpower utilization policies for that group of young men within the age limits of the Selective Service Act or a Universal Military Training Law; that these men be selected for educational deferments by a scholastic aptitude type test; that their education be subsidized on the basis of a National Reserve Officers Training Program; and that these men serve a tour of national service duty with the military, with agencies of the Federal Government, or in research or teaching service at our colleges and universities. Important provisions of this plan call for the division of an individual's service into a period of basic training preceding educational deferment and a period of national service following it. All men must take basic training. Some may be selected during basic training for advanced training at colleges or universities, others for Officer Candidate Schools. All men must serve their period of national service, either at the termination of basic training or at the termination of their educational deferment for national service. In those colleges which do not have the campus Reserve Officer Training Program the students may fulfill this obligation for training during their deferment by means of extension courses now conducted for this purpose by the Armed Forces Institute.

Under the proposed plan the Commission would be able to meet our national needs for military service and for highly trained specialists in both military and non-military fields without creating a favored class, since all would have to render national service of a type for which they were best fitted.

MARLIN MATHESON MACKENZIE. Public Relations in College Physical Education.*

This study has developed guides for improved public relations in the field of college physical education. A philosophy of public relations for colleges has been evolved which goes beyond existing concepts and is in harmony with the purposes of higher education in American society. Public relations has been defined in this study as a continuous, two-way process, designed to create favorable human relationships and a mutuality of interest among educators and laymen, and to increase public understanding of the importance and value of higher education.

Sports public relations activities have been discussed in connection with a broadly conceived institutional program of public relations. The program of physical education, including athletics, has been considered as a window through which the publics of the college may view the purposes of physical education and higher education. The first chapter portrays the role of public relations in education. The second and third chapters indicate how the college and the department of physical education may apply established principles of public relations in working with and through the publics of the college. The fourth chapter contains a discussion of the various media of communication and techniques of public relations. The final chapter focuses upon organizing the department of physical education for sports public relations activities, and delineates guides for improved sports public relations.

Some of the more important conclusions reached as a result of this research include:

The program of physical education itself is the best form of public relations. It should be broadly conceived, unified in purpose and effort, staffed by an able faculty, and conducted for the health, welfare and general education of the students.

Sports public relations should be organized and conducted in harmony with the

purposes of higher education and the policies of the college, and should supplement the institutional program of public relations.

Physical education should realize that it has many publics, composed of people with varying knowledges, attitudes and skills.

Favorable human relationships are essential for effective sports public relations.

There are many media of communication and techniques of public relations which should be effectively utilized.

Physical educators should not accede to the improper demands made by some sportswriters and sportscasters, nor should they condone the crisis type of publicity conducted by some representatives of the press today.

Professional organizations in physical education should conduct deliberate programs of public relations.

Teacher-training institutions should prepare prospective physical education teachers and leaders to assume their public relations responsibilities.



A. ORIN LEONARD. A Plan to Extend the Services for Group Discussion of the New York Public Library.*

The purpose of the study was to investigate ways in which the New York Public Library might extend its services for group discussion of current problems. By leading and participating in discussion groups, conducting a clinic-workshop type of leadership training program, interviewing, and surveying by questionnaire, the investigator gathered data with reference to six forms of service. They were: leading group discussion, organizing group discussion, training discussion leaders, calling attention to discussion materials, maintaining referral and resource files, and offering program counseling.

The findings indicated that the New York Public Library could, within the limits of present resources, give added emphasis to discussion materials, develop referral and resource files at the neighborhood

level, and include group discussion deliberately and more extensively as a possibility in program counseling. The library was not in a position to extend its service to group discussion in terms of staff personnel leadership of discussion groups and was limited in extending its activity in organizing discussion group activities or programs within the library.

The findings indicated also that the New York Public Library might possibly offer training for discussion leaders. The community would accept this service from the library, and staff members could accept this extension of the function of the library. To attempt this within the present limitations of the library would mean a slow and gradual development of the program.

Recommendation was made that additional funds be obtained for the establishment of a position of Director for the Discussion Program. The position would include coordinating all phases of library service and program for group discussion, and the establishing and developing of a discussion leaders' training program modeled after the clinic-workshop pattern used in part of this study.



RUSSELL A. PLUMPTON. The Normal Personality: Concepts and Case Illustrations.*

The literature of psychology thus far has usually neglected the study of normal individuals. Far too few individual case studies are available, and from the point of view of the clinical psychologist it is regrettable that almost none of those currently available present the full protocols of the procedures used with the subject. The purposes of the present study are to compile concepts of normality, to gather and analyze published case studies of normal persons, and, primarily, to present the complete results of studying ten normal adolescents.

First, the academic records of the 100 pupils in the combined junior and senior classes of a high school were inspected and

all students who had failed more than four semesters of work in any combination of school subjects were eliminated. The remaining list of names was shown to the principal and the director of guidance, who were asked separately to eliminate names of any who they felt were not *normal, well-adjusted* pupils. A list of the remaining 51 names was sent to each high school teacher with an explanatory note requesting him to indicate, in rank order, the top ten pupils who were in his opinion the most normal and well adjusted. In tallying the results, two tallies were given to each pupil ranked one through five, and one tally to each pupil ranked six through ten. None of the top-ranking pupils were eliminated by an inspection of their anecdotal records. Ten of the first twelve invited joined the study.

Available from the school records were group intelligence scores, school grades, extracurricular activities, attendance record, the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory, the Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory, other tests and documents. Each subject was asked to write an autobiography according to an outline provided him. The Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire was administered to small groups of the subjects. The rest of the procedures were administered individually during study-hall periods, and tape recorded. These procedures were interviews, the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, the Rohde-Hildreth Sentence Completions, the Rorschach, and the Thematic Apperception Test.

Each of the methods of study was analyzed separately and then the data were analyzed as a whole for evidence concerning the following additional criteria of normality: balance between self-expression and self-repression, adjustment to reality, conformity, inner freedom and ease, positive social feelings, and adequate sex life.

These ten normal adolescents rated uniformly high on the first three additional criteria showed greatest variability in inner freedom and ease, somewhat less variability in positive social feelings, and did not volun-

teer enough information about their sex life to make analysis possible.

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ROBERT LEE PACE. *The Selection and Use of Intermediate Piano Materials to Supplement Modern Elementary Piano Texts.**

Music educators during the twentieth century have come to realize that music must meet the needs of a greatly increased public. New methods and texts have been formulated to meet these needs. In the area of piano instruction, these texts make use of the pupil's early acquaintance with folk and action songs as a logical introduction to his new keyboard experiences.

The modern elementary texts, which encourage a diversity of keys from the beginning lesson, are in sharp contrast to traditional approaches using mainly the key of C. These modern texts stress rhythmic variety, creative work, phrasing, and sight reading, most of which are greatly lacking in older piano methods.

As the students using modern texts proceed through the elementary stages, they need supplementary material that will lead them smoothly into more extended literature of the classic and romantic periods of music. They also need an opportunity to become acquainted with the dissonance and polytonality of modern music.

Collections of piano compositions now in use as supplementary material fall into one of two general categories: those with compositions lacking key and rhythmic variety, designed to supplement earlier approaches; those based on popular appeal, without regard for technical difficulties. At present there is no collection of compositions which adequately supplements modern elementary books and serves as a link to more advanced works.

With the intention of meeting the needs of piano teachers, this project offers the following:

1. A collection of 28 classic and romantic compositions, for immediate publication, to

supplement modern texts. Detailed analysis accompanies each composition. General criteria for selection are melodic and rhythmic interest, adaptability to small or undeveloped hands, interesting structure of form and design, esthetic value.

2. Original settings of folk tunes and Christmas carols illustrating personal ideas concerning harmonic structure, technical problems, and form.

3. A compendium of 147 modern piano compositions for the intermediate grades to aid teachers in finding superior material for their students. Compositions are listed according to composer, title, publisher, and comparative difficulty.

The book would be particularly useful in the following situations: (1) class piano in public schools, (2) intermediate grades of private instruction, (3) college piano courses for music students majoring in other instruments, (4) other adult beginners.

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OTTO KRASH. *Power-Group Strategy in the Development of a National Educational Policy.**

The concern in this study of the Congressional committee hearings on Federal aid to education is with the forms of power and the use of power in a democratic society. The aim of a democracy is to diffuse the control of power. This effort has been based upon the realization that in the long run the benefits of power are apt to be restricted to those who share in its control. A democratic society may therefore be described as a society which seeks to moralize the use of power through the socialization of the control of power. Much of the power exercised in a democratic society is exercised not by individuals but by groups whose differing interests often lead to struggles between them. These struggles define the locus of power in human societies. The work of organized interest groups usually known as lobbying, both furtive and aboveboard, is not dealt with in this study; the concern here is with their efforts to

influence the making of policies and laws through open participation in the regular hearings of the various standing committees of Congress.

In the study of power, it was thought that much could be learned by examining the struggle over an actual piece of legislation. Any of the major public concerns would do, but inasmuch as this is a study done from the perspective of education, the hearings on Federal aid to education from 1945 to 1949 were selected.

The study shows that power is complex and proceeds to the examination of some of the major forms that power takes in American democracy. The major forms of power that are examined are: (1) the power of tradition, (2) the power of organized interest groups, (3) the power of fact and disinterested inquiry, and (4) the power of compromise.

The entire program of Federal aid to education is based upon a compromise version of the principle of equality in America; that is, the bills are so worded that the Federal Government will not demand absolute equality before it aids those states with segregated school systems, but will offer aid to those schools provided that Federal funds be divided equally among colored and white children in those states. Therefore, most bills read that these funds are for the purpose of making educational opportunity *more* equal.

The study shows that we have a dual system of representation in government: (1) the officially elected representatives in government; and (2) the leaders of organized interest groups. The study also discusses the power wielded by organized interest or power groups. It points out that public policy is forged in the context of the pressures and the conflicts of these organized interest groups. Those groups that achieve dominance through their membership, financial resources, efficiency, and unity of organization, as well as through their skill in public relations and in the practice of compromise and coalition, are the ones that give decisive direction to pub-

lic policy; they are the groups that achieve the power required to accomplish desired ends.

Thus, power is a complex phenomenon. It is an affair of organized interest groups, moral and democratic traditions, disinterested inquiry and its results, and the capacity to make compromise adjustments and develop functional majorities.



FRANK A. McMAHON. A Course in Fundamental Mathematics for Freshman Engineering Students at Manhattan College.*

The purpose of this project has been to provide, for freshman students in civil and electrical engineering at Manhattan College, a course in mathematics which combines a presentation of the fundamental concepts of mathematics with an opportunity to develop sufficient skill in the manipulative techniques necessary for the successful pursuit of further courses in mathematics and in engineering fields.

The considerations which led to the formulation of the proposed course are either propaedeutic or professional in nature. By virtue of the propaedeutic considerations, the proposed course includes discussions of algebra, trigonometry, analytic geometry, and differential calculus to such an extent that adequate preparation is provided for future work. An examination of the literature in the fields of engineering education and mathematics education indicates an unmistakable trend in the direction of greater emphasis on fundamental principles in mathematics training for engineering students. Also indicated is a desire to avoid stereotyped presentation of courses for engineers, and instead to base the mechanics of manipulative techniques on a sound foundation of intelligent understanding of concepts.

These latter professional considerations lead to the formulation of certain objectives which must be fulfilled by the proposed course. Among these are the under-

standing by the student of the nature of mathematics as a postulational system, the characteristics of pure and applied mathematical systems, and the relationships among the various branches of mathematics. The student should realize the necessity, in any branch of mathematics, of precise definitions based on a set of postulates, and of valid proofs derived by the process of deductive logic. He should know that mathematical induction is a powerful method of valid proof and that intuition plays an important role in the development of every branch of mathematics. He should have an understanding of some of the methods of modern mathematics and of the different concepts of mathematical infinity. He should have an understanding of the structure of the number system and of the relationships among its branches. He should understand and appreciate the nature and methods of analytic geometry and should be acquainted with the basic concepts of differential calculus. In general, the professional objectives of the proposed course should be to convey to him the spirit of mathematics, so that he will approach future study of the subject with those attitudes toward mathematics which are characteristic of the truly professional engineer.

On the basis of these propaedeutic and professional objectives, a textbook was written for the proposed course and used for two successive years in two separate classes each year. The project report contains detailed discussions of the individual chapters of this text, in the light of the objectives stated for the course.

On the basis of grades achieved by graduates of the experimental course in their later mathematics work, it appears that the propaedeutic objectives of the experimental course (at least as far as preparation for future mathematics courses is concerned) have been fulfilled. In addition, it is felt that a distinct change in the attitudes of the students had occurred by the end of the experimental course; some feeling of the spirit of mathematics was possessed by

most of the students. This seems to presage the development by them of the attitude which characterizes the truly professional engineer.

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MARGARET MAY DUNCAN. Professional Orientation to the Teaching of Physical Education.*

The purpose of the study was to produce a book for students which will contribute to successful orientation to undergraduate professional preparation in physical education.

The procedures followed included extensive reading of related literature in books, periodicals, monographs, and proceedings of various professional organizations; compilation and interpretation of specific informational materials; conferences with colleagues engaged in teacher education; and active participation in studies related to professional orientation as a member of the Illinois Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Reflective consideration of student problems encountered through personal experience, and the results of student surveys contributed materially to the selection of content.

An attempt has been made to record general policies and interpret professional standards established and accepted by authoritative groups. The point of view has been maintained that the student who is well informed and aware of his responsibilities will be better qualified to direct effective effort toward achieving professional competencies, and that the basic processes of orientation should be designed to implement cooperative planning for successful professional preparation. The presentation of information relative to intelligent planning for a career and the discussion of physical education as a career were formulated as a direct outgrowth of an expressed student need for informational materials to guide selection.

An interpretation of the professional

nature of teaching, the status of teaching as a profession, and the status of physical education as an integral part of education represents an approach to the meaning, philosophy, aims, and objectives of physical education. The role of the teacher in accomplishing established goals of education and of physical education offers a basis for understanding pre-service teaching requirements.

The professional student is considered in relation to his adjustment to college life, the use of effective study and living habits, and the development of acceptable personal, social, and emotional characteristics. Practical suggestions are offered to implement the selection of experiences which will contribute to the development of qualities affecting personal relationships in college and essential to effective school and community relationships as a teacher. Leadership development is related to teaching capabilities, and suggestions are included for securing leadership experiences.

Pre-service teaching experiences, including service with youth agencies, recreation, and camp organizations are interpreted as sequential steps in the development of teaching competencies. Special consideration is given to the functions of student teaching.

The future of the prospective teacher is considered from a practical standpoint which deals with placement opportunities, qualifications required for various positions, placement services and functions, the importance of references, recommendations, applications, and interviews, contract provisions and ethics, suggestions for preparation for the first teaching position, and problems of teacher adjustment to the community. Professional growth is discussed as a process starting with undergraduate preparation and continuing throughout the life of the teacher.

The book should be useful as a source of reference for high school teachers who help students evaluate interests, personal qualities and capabilities for physical education as a career; as a text for professional

students in courses dealing with introduction or orientation to physical education; and as a source of reference for students throughout undergraduate professional preparation.



GORDON WELSHONS GRAY. *Developing a Selective Guide to Midwest Regional Novels.**

This selective guide to forty novels on the American Midwest is a pilot project within a larger educational project concerned with the study and teaching of American regional literature.

The larger project, now consisting of six exploratory studies distributed among southern regional drama, Georgia short stories, early New York novels, forty Midwest novels, and pioneer novels of the Dakotas and Minnesota, seeks to find the most promising critical and teaching techniques for teachers in high schools and colleges who undertake to show how literature gets the raw materials of our many-sided life into significant communicable symbols and forms. These studies are designed particularly to serve in high school and college programs where emphasis turns to "community," regional, and interregional concerns as well as broadly on national and universal concerns.

This guide has assembled for the use of teachers an annotated bibliography of novels about the Middle West, chronologically arranged by period and including a section of the bibliography which focuses on Chicago. Included also are a study of earlier fiction guides and a chart showing their chief features.

In several American literature classes at Teachers College, Columbia University, reading novels and writing annotations for them are the assignment for the third credit in three-point courses.

In the final editing of the project, annotations are revised or rewritten as is found necessary. Verification from the novel itself is sought for all materials used.

The most satisfactory results in annotations are secured when students understand the larger values of the project. A review of existing guides to fiction is helpful. Best annotations, however, are likely to require 10 to 30 per cent revision for comparable treatment and coverage.

Purposes of the project seem to have been achieved. Students are cooperative. They find the discipline of writing annotations stimulating and take satisfaction in contributing to a project which when completed may be of use both to students and to teachers.

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KENNETH L. DUSTMAN. A Plan to Implement Training in Harmonic Dictation through the Use of Selected and Recorded Music Materials.*

Music "theory" courses have as their goal the development of a wide musicianship in music students. One phase of this work which has not been outstandingly successful in the matter of results obtained is the aural study of harmonic principles. It has also lagged behind other phases of the theory program in the application of educational principles to its organization and its teaching. A basic need of the music student is to understand and to respond precisely to (through hearing) the pitch and rhythmic relationships in music. It is the aim of this project to develop means that will strengthen these precise reactions.

Until recently the field of written music theory has not used sound educational practices. Some newer harmony texts are now using music literature and not exercises to derive musical principles. Harmonic dictation can do the same and thereby add one more phase of development toward better musicianship. Music that is educationally significant and suitable must be used. It must be in a form easily accessible to students and organized so that they can obtain maximum benefits from its study.

It is not difficult to find examples in music literature which will illustrate har-

monic progressions. Research in the field of harmonic complexity provides data for organizing them, and gives a basis for the introduction of chords so that they may be studied according to the frequency of their use in actual music. These excerpts must be of limited length to permit concentrated study. However, the shortest possible complete musical idea that should be used is the period. We can use these musical ideas in germinal form which will illustrate harmonic principles and show how composers handled them in composition.

Wax records of 78 r.p.m. speed seem best suited to use for the recording of the above. The surfaces of this type of record have high fidelity, its length is not beyond the concentration span of students, and it will permit ease in locating specific examples. Each record must carry an oral presentation of the rhythm, the key, and the volume wherein the score of the example may be found. This is best if given with a standardized procedure and takes but little of the time between excerpts.

In order that students may check their work, scores must be available. As the main purpose of these excerpts is to illustrate harmonic principles, it is best if the scores are all in the concert pitch, give cues and dynamic and tempi markings, and make the voice leadings as clear as possible.

Care must be taken so that a superficial survey of our problems is not made. For that reason the examples included in this project are limited to the technical vocabulary of the first-year student. Chromatic harmony is not used except some few second dominants that are presented in a few first-year texts.

Most music departments have soloists and playing groups of performing caliber. These individuals and organizations can be used to play for the recording. Practice is necessary before the actual cutting of the records, and the timing of the whole procedure must be carefully worked out.

This plan of making and using carefully selected examples of music literature in recorded form can be used by teachers for

outside assignments, by individuals seeking remedial training, and by individuals who seek self-improvement and self-evaluation. It incorporates the principle that actual music should be used for the study of music.



THOMAS H. RICHARDSON. Developing International Understanding Through the Industrial Arts Program.*

This study attempts to aid in solving the great problem of preserving world peace. The conclusions about international understanding which have been reached by the most accomplished thinkers are often either too technical or too abstract for use in education. This report strives to bring down to a practical level for *application* these theories about international understanding. It attempts to show how they might be applied in a common part of the school curriculum—industrial arts. It hopes to achieve the following objectives: (1) help to make individual teachers more internationally minded, (2) help to make teachers effective in spreading international understanding among their students, (3) provide industrial arts teachers with practical material for the teaching of international understanding, (4) make a contribution to the whole literature on international understanding.

Before the actual task of studying the ways to peace is faced, however, the vital and dynamic nature of this problem must be clearly understood. The following considerations precede and make socially meaningful the motivation behind this study. (1) Peace must be maintained since war would be disastrous. (2) Conflict and war are not part of man's nature. (3) Education can be a force for peace. With these statements studied and accepted it becomes possible to approach the task of devising a practical educational program for peace.

A person's ability to work for peace is dependent upon his understanding of the things which threaten it. The first step,

therefore, must be to make a thorough examination of the causes of war. This analysis reveals that all of the causes of war may be grouped into three categories: economic, social-psychological, and misinformation-ignorance.

Separate and detailed programs are devised showing how industrial arts can be used to counteract each of these major causes of war. An attempt is made within each category to discover what the experts have to suggest. Anthropology, economics, psychology, and sociology are examined in order to utilize their pertinent contributions. Practical classroom suggestions are made for desirable changes in the philosophy, methods, and materials of industrial arts. This subject is shown as a possible counteractive to the economic causes of war by its ability to raise the standard of living. Industrial arts is shown as a possible counteractive to the social-psychological causes of war by its ability to foster attitude changes in students. It is shown as a possible counteractive to the misinformation-ignorance causes of war by its ability to make available to students the type of information which is necessary for peace.

This report, therefore, represents an attempt to make the general theories about world peace educationally potent by first interpreting the educational significance of these theories and then applying these interpretations in practical classroom situations.



LAVERNE A. BROOKS. A High School in Transition.*

In 1944 the high school in Tenafly, New Jersey, was a somewhat traditional, subject-centered school whose curriculum, student activities, guidance services, organization, and administration were not functioning in a manner that served the best interests of the boys and girls of the community. Such things as high failure rates, numerous drop-outs, and a student strike tended to bear out this estimate of the school's effectiveness. The board of education authorized a comprehensive survey of the high school to

provide guide lines to a program of improvement.

Nearly six years have elapsed since the survey report was published. This study is an account of what has happened during those six years. In a sense it is a progress and process report. It attempts to describe how the board of education, the principal, the parents, the pupils, the teachers, and the coordinators of Tenafly High School have worked together, using survey recommendations and other resources, to improve the ways in which the school helps the boys and girls become better citizens, homemakers, workers, and persons.

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ERNEST MERRILL FROST. *Living and Teaching in Small Communities.**

This project was developed to assist the teacher working in the small high schools of Maine to understand the community in which he lives and works. The procedure that was followed in the development of the project falls into four classifications.

1. A course of study was developed for a class of students training to be teachers, the majority of whom would spend a greater part of their teaching careers in the small high schools of Maine. This course incorporated, as an experiment, some of the ideas the author later developed in the research for his project.

2. Twenty-two teachers teaching in three types of small communities—agricultural, industrial, and residential—were interviewed. They were asked to state their major problems in the order in which they themselves deemed them of importance.

3. The predominating problems of the 22 teachers were put into questionnaire form and sent to 607 teachers of small high schools of Maine. The 369 teachers who replied determined the problems that were general throughout the small high schools of Maine.

4. As a result of the first three steps a handbook was produced to suggest possible solutions to the general problems.

The conclusions which were reached as a result of the preliminary investigation and which the writer attempted to express in the handbook may be summed up in one general statement, namely, that the teacher in the small high school of Maine has been a person apart from the community rather than a part of the community. The teacher has not made a positive enough effort to break away from this isolation and enter into the spirit of his environment. Suggestions to assist the teacher in becoming a part of the community are specifically presented in the handbook. Some of these are: join the community's social and service organizations; carry the classroom learning over into life by means of practical projects, such as mathematics classes laying out playgrounds; develop a more personal point of view in teaching by using guidance; give up the thought that the present job is merely to be endured until something better comes along.

The above illustrations are but a few of many presented under four major headings: Understanding and Studying Youth and the Community in Which They Live; Working with Youth in the School; Working with Youth and Adults in the Community; Teaching as a Life's Work.

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DONALD M. ROWE. *A Program of Study in the Structure and Materials of Music for Hofstra College.**

This is a report of a project undertaken within the music curriculum of a college of arts and sciences. The purpose of the project is to plan a sequence of musical experiences and directed study in the area of music theory. The program of study resulting from such a plan is to reflect sound educational principles and procedures which will bring about desirable outcomes. This report deals with a detailed analysis of the local conditions affecting the project, a statement of the educational philosophy supporting the plan, and a detailed discus-

sion of the curriculum organization which will effect the achievement of its aims.

Since the chief consideration in the planning of this program of study has been the students whom it will serve, the student's needs were appraised in terms of his own background and his personal and vocational goals. Through questionnaire and personal contact with students who were to participate, it was determined that the program should serve three types: (1) those pursuing personal interests in music with a view toward specialization in another area, (2) those preparing for vocations in music or allied fields, and (3) those preparing to teach music in the public schools.

The broad base from which directed study springs is an exploration of music literature. Motivation and focus are provided by a broad integration of musical facilities of the college in which the student participates. Musical horizons are extended by including significant music from choral, instrumental and vocal solo, orchestral, and "popular" literature. In general, the criteria for the selection of music for study should take into account its potentialities of evoking a musical experience, contributing to musical understandings, and being personally significant to the learner.

Activities which are to provide the musical experiences fall into six general areas: listening, reading, analyzing, playing, writing, and creating.

Evidences of musical growth are presented from two sources: student evaluation of the program in terms of its contribution to his own musical growth; and functional outcomes as observed in the student's own musical performance. Two generalizations concerning the effectiveness of the program are suggested. First, musical study is more likely to be fruitful when knowledge, understandings, skills, and individual capacities are correlated in the learning process. Hence the study of musical structures and materials can be made more functional by application to the performance of music. Skills thus acquired tend to be accumulative as opposed to terminal.

Second, musical learnings are more meaningful when study is based on music literature approached from the appreciative and expressive point of view.



VERA DOROTHY PETERSEN. *Some Graphic Processes Used in the Illustration of Contemporary Children's Books.**

This project, intended for teachers, parents, and friends of children who select books or help children select them, is centered in one thing—appreciation of the artistic qualities of good illustrations and format of children's books.

The project is compiled on 210 pages, 14 x 17 inches. The 109 mounted illustrations from 42 different children's books represent the work of 36 artists.

The project has three main divisions. The first is concerned with how artists prepare their originals and make color separations for reproduction by relief processes; the second, with the making of originals for reproduction by intaglio processes; the third, with the making of originals and color separations for reproduction by planographic processes. But over and above this classification is the more important aspect—appreciation for craftsmanship that goes into the best books for children.

This project presents illustrations from children's books that were available in the ten-year period between 1940 and 1951, that are accessible in all good libraries, and that, for the most part, can still be purchased in bookshops. It gives information from the author's personal acquaintance and interviews with artists who illustrate children's books today.



DAVID SCANLON. *The Study of the Soviet Union in Teachers Colleges.**

Although there is need for understanding of the USSR and of the principles of Communism on the part of teachers if they are to help produce well-informed citizens, a survey of college catalogues of all independ-

ent accredited teachers colleges in the United States, responses to a questionnaire sent to instructors in such courses, and interviews with instructors revealed that there is little opportunity in the state teachers colleges for any concentrated study of the Soviet Union.

On the basis of a test administered to groups of seniors in three state teachers colleges, it appears that students who do not take specific courses on the USSR often do not have sufficient knowledge of the fundamental information regarding the history, geography, government, or culture of the Soviet Union, or of the basic concepts of Communism. There also seems to be a correlation between the number of courses offered in the social sciences which might include some study of the USSR and the amount of actual knowledge on the part of students.

A survey of the college catalogues of 144 independent accredited teachers colleges reveals that there are but 42 colleges (29 per cent) which offer specific courses on the USSR. While more such courses were added to the curricula of these colleges following World War II than had been offered prior to the war, the rate of increase has dropped sharply in the past year.

Students in colleges which do offer such courses often do not actually have the opportunity to elect them, for in 27 colleges only 22 per cent offer them every semester. Enrollments in these courses are small in proportion to the total college enrollment—in 20 teachers colleges, only 614 students (2 per cent) were enrolled in these courses during 1949-50.

Responses to questionnaires, and interviews with instructors of such courses reveal that the lecture method predominates, that many instructors have had no specialized study of the Soviet Union, and that few require the reading of any of the works of Marx, Lenin, or Stalin. Since all courses are electives, apparently some means of improving the course content and methods of instruction, and of securing more adequately

trained instructors must be found if enrollment in these courses is to increase.

While the need for training in the Russian language has been recognized by educators, there is only one teachers college which offers courses in that language. Of the 59 different courses which are offered in 144 colleges, 84 per cent are history courses.

From this study, it would seem that there is a definite need for greater opportunity for students in state teachers colleges to acquire an understanding of the basic concepts of the Soviet system and of international Communism.

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FREDERICK E. TANGER. A Plan for Extending the Resources of Teachers College, Columbia University, to Local Boards of Education in the New York Metropolitan Area.*

This project is concerned with a plan through which Teachers College, Columbia University, attempts to provide a program of direct in-service education for school board members in the New York metropolitan area. It presents a detailed analysis and description of the organization and activities of the School Board Institute from its conception in the spring of 1949 through its first year of operation, 1949-50. It investigates the reactions of the participants in the activities of that year. It searches for evidence of similar programs throughout the United States.

The writer, as Assistant Coordinator of the School Board Institute during its first year, was in a position to observe and report its operations.

Five techniques were used to secure the reactions of the participants in order to judge the success of the program and to seek advice for its future improvement. These techniques were as follows:

The Group Discussion: group discussion meetings of board presidents or their alternates and administrators.

The Questionnaire: (a) to board presidents or their alternates and administrators, (b) to the graduate student recorders of the School Board Institute Conferences.

The Personal Interview: with members of Teachers College staff who served as consultant personnel for the School Board Institute activities.

Letters of Inquiry: (a) to members of boards enrolled in the School Board Institute, (b) to consultant personnel not members of Teachers College staff.

Applications for Enrollment in 1950-51: indicated by boards enrolled in the 1949-50 School Board Institute activities.

Letters requesting information about similar programs of direct in-service education for school board members were submitted to representatives of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, to the chief state school officers, and to the secretaries of state school board associations.

The conclusions were as follows:

1. School board members have a felt need for in-service education beyond that furnished by their superintendent. This is apparently the case throughout the United States.

2. Teachers College has peculiar advantages for furnishing direct in-service education for school board members.

3. Other institutions of higher learning can, through careful planning, engage in activities similar to those of the School Board Institute.

4. If programs of direct in-service education for school board members are to succeed, the local school superintendent must not be excluded.

5. Virtually all programs of direct in-service education for school board members above the county level are jointly sponsored by two or more agencies.

6. A great deal needs to be done to raise the level of understanding of school board members. The activities of the School Board Institute must be recognized as a pioneering effort.

ROSE KHADDOURI. Suggestions for the Improvement of Instruction in the Urban Primary Schools of Iraq.*

There is a need in the primary schools of Iraq for improved instruction adequate to the social needs of the country. This study deals with processes of education in the elementary schools of the United States applicable to problems of Iraq, with attention to basic factors in child development, such as individual differences, needs for security and success, the problem of frustration; with attention to basic experiences for learners, such as creative work, group participation, and leadership; and with special attention to the role of the teacher in guiding a cooperative process of planning-learning experience in the classroom.

Various modern schools, public and private, in and around New York City were visited during the years 1948-1951. Observation of learners and teachers in the classroom and community, interviews with learners, teachers, parents and educational leaders, and records of learning experiences provided material for this study. Examination of contemporary educational literature in the United States and discussions with students and professors of education helped the writer to discover and refine basic principles of modern educational processes. Application of these principles to primary schools in Iraq is made on the basis of the writer's experience in teaching and of studies by other Iraqi educators.

This study is addressed to the Ministry of Education. It outlines present features of urban primary education in Iraq, the basic problems which must be solved, theory and practice in elementary education in the United States, application to the urban primary schools of Iraq, and suggestions to the Ministry of Education of Iraq for the reconstruction of urban primary education.

Since the Ministry of Education controls the centralized system of public schools in Iraq, educational improvement should be

initiated by the Ministry. It should be based on greater local autonomy. Teachers should have greater freedom to plan learning experiences with the learners in the classroom. Cooperation in achieving common educational goals should be sought by the Ministry of Education through a channel of communication involving other government agencies, school personnel, parents, and community leaders. Planning groups at local, provincial, and national levels should discuss and evaluate the educational program in the primary schools.

Teachers with adequate background in child development and modern educational methods will be required. The Ministry must develop professional preparation in a pre-service teacher education program at the collegiate level. The teacher must also continue to learn in a program of in-service education.



ROBERT RICHARD MARTIN. Implications of Patterns of Expenditures for Budgeting and Accounting.*

The general purpose of this study is to determine the pattern of expenditures at various current expenditure levels and to develop guidelines as one means whereby the budget maker may appraise the current expense budget and plan wisely for possible increases in school revenue.

The study has specific objectives: (1) to determine the percentage distribution of the six current expense classifications at the \$225, the \$298, and the \$426 mean current expenditure levels per weighted pupil; (2) to draw implications for the budget maker of this percentage distribution; (3) to report on the extent to which categories or levels within services may be drawn from the present accounting system; and (4) to determine through the interview method new services that superintendents would add if increased funds were available.

Financial and statistical data were collected for the schools of the Metropolitan School Study Council in New York, New

Jersey, and Connecticut from the annual reports on file in the respective departments of education. After a preliminary analysis of the data for all districts, five districts at each of the three mean expenditure levels were chosen for further analysis and for visitation.

The basic technique used was to determine the percentage distribution of current expenditure among the six classifications of the uniform school-accounting system. On the basis of this percentage distribution, an effort was made to determine the characteristic pattern at various expenditure levels and to draw implications for budgeting.

Reported financial data were analyzed to determine to what extent expenditures for meaningful categories of service might be drawn from them, and for possible implications for accounting.

By the interview technique an effort was made to determine what the educational leadership in fiscally-favored school systems considers as needed extensions of old services or new services which may only now be emerging.

Finally, through the actual visitation of schools at various expenditure levels it was possible to get the "feel" of education at the levels studied.

The implications for budgeting and accounting are discussed under four main heads.

1. The relatively minor changes noted in the pattern of expenditure concerned mainly the percentage reduction for operation and maintenance of the school plant and the increased percentage that was given to instruction as the level of expenditure was raised. Administration took approximately the same percentage at all three levels.

2. Chief limitations of the accounting system that were uncovered were: (a) No entirely satisfactory pupil unit has been developed. (b) Homogeneity of school system cannot be determined. (c) Auxiliary agencies and fixed charges are miscellaneous classifications. (d) Instruction as a single classification accounts for 75 per cent of

expenditures. (e) Maintenance covers items only remotely related. (f) It is not always possible to eliminate items not chargeable to pupil education costs.

3. Standards of service must be developed so that by using the appropriate unit of measurement a school system may appraise its expenditures with respect to the quality of service rendered.

4. Budgeting and accounting must serve the school program, not be the master of it. They must assist in the constant and continuous appraisal of the educational program. At the same time budgeting and accounting should be conducive to the development of an emerging, adaptable educational program. Each must go the second mile.

Departmental Notes

Division I

Foundations of Education

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

At the annual meetings in St. Louis, Professor R. Freeman Butts was elected vice president of the National Society of College Teachers of Education for the coming year. He will automatically become president of the society the following year.

Professor Butts wrote the opening chapter of the February issue of the *Review of Educational Research*. The entire issue is devoted to "The Social Framework of Education" and the chapter deals with recent research in "The Historical and Philosophical Foundations of Education."

PROFESSOR George S. Counts was recently elected to the Board of Directors of Freedom House.

THE Association of Teachers of Social Studies heard Professor Harold F. Clark speak on the "Teaching of Economics," at their February 15 meeting. He addressed the teachers of Newport, R. I., April 2 on the "Relation of School to Community Improvements."

LEADING American corporations in business and industry have selected Professor Goodwin Watson to plan and direct the procedures of a work conference for their public relations executives to be held in June.

THE president of the National Social Service for Commercial Employees, Dr. Brasilio

Machado Neto of Sao Paulo, invited Professor Robert King Hall to spend two weeks in Brazil as a consultant to that organization. Dr. Neto and the national director of SESC, Dr. Murilo Braga, plan to come to New York in May to consult with Professor Hall and other members of the College staff.

DURING the St. Louis convention of the National Society of College Teachers of Education in February, Professor Lawrence Cremin was elected to the coordinating committee of the History of Education Section of that society.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

At the annual meeting in January of the New York State Psychological Association, Professor Percival M. Symonds was elected a member of the Board of Directors.

Division II

Administration and Guidance

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

DR. Kenneth Oberholtzer, president of the American Association of School Administrators, has appointed Professor Will French a member of the 1954 Yearbook Commission.

A study of high school teacher turnover during 1950-51 in Maryland, by Professor French and Dr. D. W. Zimmerman, Assistant State Superintendent in Finance and Research, has been completed. This study was planned as a preliminary to a similar study

that will show the facts of teacher turnover for the nation as a whole prior to the crisis in teacher supply which may arise when the present enlarged elementary school enrollments reach the high school level.

GUIDANCE

At the Los Angeles meeting of the American College Personnel Association the first week in April, Professor Kenneth F. Herold presented a paper on "Decision-making and the Situational Test in Professional Personnel Appraisal and Training."

Division III Instruction

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

APPROXIMATELY fifty members of the alumni group of the pre-service program in early childhood education attended the all-day conference held by the staff on February 23. At this time plans were made to hold two short conferences next year.

THE World Book Company has published "Teaching Young Children," a new book written by Professor Roma Gans, Dr. Millie Almy of the University of Cincinnati, and Dr. Celia Stendler of the University of Illinois.

PROFESSOR Alice Miel, who has been in Japan since last August serving as consultant to the CIE section of the U. S. Army, recently returned to the United States.

SOCIAL STUDIES

ON March 7, Professor George T. Renner participated in the Round Table on City Planning at Columbia University and delivered a talk on "Evolving City Patterns in the United States."

A special course on World Geopolitics is

being offered by Dr. Paul F. Griffin this semester at Hunter College.

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

PROFESSOR Lennox Grey, who serves as president of the National Council of Teachers of English, met with other members of the Executive Committee in Boston, February 22 to 24.

AN article entitled "Preparing for Our Jobs," by Professor Grey, appeared in the February issue of the *English Journal*.

THE National Association of Foreign Student Advisors has appointed Professor Virginia French Allen a member of its Board of Directors. The Association is concerned with such problems of foreign students as learning English as a second language.

SPEECH AND DRAMA

Miss Geraldine Garrison, consultant in speech and hearing, State Department of Education in Connecticut, led members of the Speech Club in a discussion on a state program in speech and hearing February 15. Nine other graduates of the College speech department, teachers in the state's speech and hearing program, also participated.

To celebrate International Theatre Month the Drama Workshop presented *Simple Simon*, a new play for children. The play was written by Aurand Harris, with original music by Lucille Paris. Choreography is by Jack Steigerwald, scenery by Natalie Donlon, and costumes by Jane Wright, students in the department. Professor Paul Kozelka directed the production. The three-act comedy-fantasy, based on freedom and neighborliness, was presented from March 26 to 29.

PROFESSOR Paul Kozelka participated as the

guest lecturer and critic judge of three original one-act plays written by students at the Arts Festival of Woman's College (University of North Carolina) in Greensboro March 13.

MUSIC EDUCATION

THE Music Educators National Conference recently published the *Handbook for Teaching Piano Classes*, under the editorship of Professor Raymond Burrows. This handbook is the work of the MENC National Piano Committee, of which Professor Burrows has been chairman for the past six years.

FOR approximately one week in March, Professor Harry R. Wilson served as guest conductor for choral festivals, conductor of a choral clinic, and worked with various choral groups in high schools in Kentucky, Illinois, Alabama, and Virginia. On March 25 he served as demonstrator and lecturer in choral music for one of the special meetings of the Music Educators National Conference in Philadelphia.

PROFESSOR Norval L. Church has been elected to a national honorary membership in Phi Mu Alpha Sinfonia, a music education fraternity.

HOME ECONOMICS

EIGHT to ten scholarships, for a year of study in the United States, are granted annually to students from other lands by the American Home Economics Association. Professor Helen Judy-Bond is in charge of placement of the recipients. Professor Bond is consultant in Home Economics to the Institute of International Education.

A research study, financed by the Navy, on the "Determination of Certain Nutrients Present in Various Foods at Various Stages of Preparation" is now being carried on at

the College. In this connection, Admiral Austin and Commander Corrick of the Naval Research and Development Facility at Bayonne were departmental guests March 5.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

AT the First College Symposium on the Education of the Exceptional, held at Hunter College February 25-28, many members of the Teachers College faculty actively participated. Major responsibilities for leadership were carried by the following: Dr. Elizabeth M. Kelly, Dr. Moe Bergman, Mrs. Eleanor C. Ronnei, Dr. Clarence D. O'Connor, Dr. Paul E. Eiserer, and Mr. Merrill T. Hollinshead.

Members of the faculty who took active part in the various work groups included: Dr. Mildred A. Groht, Dr. Paul Lindenberg, Dr. Herbert Rusalem, Miss Estelle E. Samuelson, Mrs. Winifred Famiani, Mr. Ichok I. Goldberg, Mrs. Sarah J. Kinoy, Miss Mary C. New, Dr. Philip Knapp, and Dr. P. C. Potts.

Institute of Administrative Research

THE basic aims and methods of modern public school education are being explained in "Our Schools at Work," a new television series presented by station WATV and the Metropolitan School Study Council, an Institute affiliate.

Various aspects of the subject are being covered in a series of thirteen broadcasts which started Monday, March 10. They can be seen over channel 13 from 8:30 to 9 P. M. Each week a different Council community presents the program.

The series was arranged by the Council's television production committee, and is under the supervision of Dr. Lee Demeter, who is television coordinator of the Council.

Office of Field Relations and Placement*

The following recent appointments are reported by the Office of Field Relations and Placement:

Amrein, Polly (A.M. 1950), kindergarten teacher, Old Edgemont School, San Bruno, Calif.

Barbey, Frances G. (A.M. 1946), teacher of English and social studies and general counselor, Lake Oswego High School, Oswego, Ore.

Barker, Thoburn V. (A.M. 1951), instructor in speech and dramatics, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

Berzon, Philip, teacher of French and Spanish, High School, Haverstraw, N. Y.

Bialek, Hilton M. (A.M. 1951), assistant director of counseling and employment, Children's Aid Society, New York, N. Y.

Bristah, Harland (A.M. 1948), head of mathematics department, Birch Wathen School, New York, N. Y.

Burchett, John W. (A.M. 1950), teacher of music, Public Schools, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Dunne, Marion, teacher of French and Spanish, High School, Highland Falls, N. Y.

Eaton, Annie W. (A.M. 1946), teacher of home economics, Bluefield State College, Bluefield, W. Va.

Ewing, Catherine (A.M. 1950), teacher of English and French, High School, Fultonville, N. Y.

Fairbanks, Marion M., teacher of business education, High School, Massena, N. Y.

Foster, Earl La Jesse (A.M. 1949), athletic director, Crispus Attucks Recreation Center, Lancaster, Pa.

Frank, John H. (A.M. 1951), instructor in social studies and mathematics, Taylor Township High School, Hollidaysburg, Pa.

Freeman, Frances M. (A.M. 1949), kindergarten teacher, Longfellow School, Long Beach, Calif.

French, Virginia (Ed.D. 1951), teacher of art, Public Schools, Elmont, N. Y.

George, Leonard Beattie, Jr. (A.M. 1951), supervisor of art, High School, Dumont, N. J.

**Any student who is taking or has taken twelve points of work at Teachers College may register with the Office of Field Relations and Placement. Any student in the allied schools of Columbia University who has carried twelve points of work is also eligible for registration.*

Goldsborough, Andrew, instructor in Spanish, Columbia Grammar School, New York, N. Y.

Goldsmith, Katherine L., teacher of physical education, Bureau of Health Education and Service, Board of Education, Newark, N. J.

Harding, Mildred Estelle (A.M. 1949), instructor in piano, University of Corpus Christi, Corpus Christi, Tex.

Harnash, Wilbur (A.M. 1951), retail coordinator, A. B. Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

Hayes, Dorman J., instructor in accounting and business law, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, R. I.

Israel, Bette, teacher of physical education, Lincoln and Columbus Elementary Schools, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Jackson, Lois E. (M.S. 1946), Dietitian, St. Lawrence Hospital, Lansing, Mich.

Johnson, Mary Tabitha (A.M. 1951), assistant director of nursing service, Emory University Hospital, Emory University, Ga.

Katz, Stanley S. (A.M. 1951), instructor of natural science, Larson Junior College, New Haven, Conn.

Kaufman, Mildred, teacher of foods and nutrition and clinic dietitian, Hospital of Woman's Medical College, Philadelphia, Pa.

Kehres, Walter (A.M. 1951), instructor in music, The Andrews School for Girls, Wiloughby, Ohio.

Kent, George S. (A.M. 1950), physical science aid, Watson Laboratory, Eatontown, N. J.

Kidd, Kathleen, teacher of seventh grade, Public School, Elmont, N. Y.

Kirk, Edna, field assistant, Department of Public Instruction, Honolulu, T. H.

Kurkhill, Pearl, teacher of English, Edgewood Park School, Briarcliff Manor, N. Y.

Lebedeff, William Jacobson, teacher of music, Diamond Consolidated School, Diamond, Mo.

Lerner, Joseph Sidney (A.M. 1947), director of training, Arizona Children's Colony, Coolidge, Ariz.

Lewarn, John H., Jr. (A.M. 1951), teacher and supervisor of art, Lennox, Lennoxdale, and Washington, Mass.

Liano, Candida, teacher of second grade, Blessed Sacrament Convent, Elizabeth, N. J.

Long, Willie A. (A.M. 1951), principal, Johnson Institute, Harris County, Ga.

Mayers, Marian Ruth (A.M. 1948), supervisor of music, Public Schools, Mansfield, Ohio.

Napp, Leonard (A.M. 1951), band director, Soperton High School, Soperton, Ga.

Nass, Samuel H. (A.M. 1951), instructor in art, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

Nelson, Jean P., group teacher, Manhattanville Nursery Association, New York, N. Y.

Nettles, Estel (A.M. 1938), teacher of home-making, La Marque High School, La Marque, Tex.

Pardee, Hobart Porter (A.M. 1951), placement counselor, Y.M.C.A. Vocational Service Center, New York, N. Y.

Popkin, Roslyn (A.M. 1951), nursery school director and teacher, Valencia Nursery School, New Orleans, La.

Quinney, Marion M. (A.M. 1951), instructor in home economics, Wiley College, Marshall, Tex.

Raney, Emmett L. (A.M. 1947), assistant professor of speech, Westmar College, Le Mars, Iowa.

Robbins, Doris Elizabeth (A.M. 1951), elementary supervisor, West Babylon School, Babylon, N. Y.

Robinson, Paul S., instructor in organ, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

Ruffner, Van N., Jr. (A.M. 1951), employment interviewer, New York State Employment Service, Yonkers, N. Y.

Rutledge, Dwight, teacher of music, Junior High School, North Haven, Conn.

Sawyer, Frank A. (A.M. 1947), teacher of speech, Chelsea Vocational High School, New York, N. Y.

Semanitzky, Michael, instructor in music, Memphis College of Music, Southwestern University, Memphis, Tenn.

Sheppard, Jane E. (A.M. 1951), instructor in voice, Hastings College, Conservatory of Music, Hastings, Nebr.

Toller, Jacob (A.M. 1935), supervisor of music, Public Schools, Windsor Locks, Conn.

Templeton, Arthur D. (A.M. 1943), assistant to the superintendent, Public Schools, Yonkers, N. Y.

Virtue, Rhue Hope (A.M. 1950), teacher, Day Care Program, Long Beach, Calif.

Watcke, Beatrice M. (A.M. 1951), nutritionist, New York State Department of Health, Nutrition Bureau, Albany, N. Y.

Weinheimer, Robert A. (A.M. 1950), teacher of chemistry and athletic coach, Regis-Loyola Schools, New York, N. Y.

Wilson, Mary Maclay, chief dietitian, Middlesex General Hospital, New Brunswick, N. J.

Zweibach, Sol I. (A.M. 1948), director, New York University, Jewish Culture Foundation, New York, N. Y.

Alumni Activities

Virgil M. Rogers (Ed.D. 1944) has been named president of the American Association of School Administrators. He was the superintendent of schools in Gunnison, Colo., from 1929 to 1934, and since then has been, successively superintendent of schools in Boulder, Colo.; director of the University of Colorado training schools; superintendent of the River Forest, Ill., schools. On July 1, 1945 he became superintendent of schools at Battle Creek, Mich.

Dr. Rogers has served as guest faculty member and lecturer in various university summer sessions, including Northwestern University, the University of Michigan, Michigan State College, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York University, and the University of Texas.

He is a member of the executive committee of the American Association of School Administrators and chairman of the 1952 yearbook commission of the A.A.S.A., and is now serving his second three-year term as a member of the National Education Association's commission on the defense of democracy through education.

The president of Schauffler College in Cleveland, Dr. George P. Michaelides, delivered the second lecture at the sixth annual University of Life program. The services are sponsored by the Worship Commission of the Greater Lowell (Mass.) Council of Churches. Dr. Michaelides spoke on "Christian Faith and Community Action."

The appointment of Clarence R. Houseberg as an instructor in educational psychology, tests, and measurements at Susquehanna University, was announced in February. He has had a wide experience in the field of education, having taught for several years

in both the elementary and the secondary schools. He recently completed his fifth year as supervising principal of Fulton, Atglen and Wiconsico townships in Pennsylvania.

The Mutual Security Agency has appointed Paul R. Hanna (Ph.D. 1929) director of education to its Special Technical and Economic Mission to the Philippines. As the first American to hold this post, Dr. Hanna will help the Philippine government develop its program for improving adult education facilities as well as elementary and secondary school systems. The program is based on the principle that a fundamental education in "the three R's" is necessary to a people who want to make the best practical use of modern technical know-how in both agriculture and industry.

Dr. Hanna has taken the Philippine post on a year's leave of absence from Stanford University, where he has been a professor of education for the past seventeen years.

The Visiting Nurse Service of New York has appointed Mrs. Ellen Hugo Johnson Assistant Supervisor at its Central Harlem office. The Service is now the world's largest private voluntary public health agency serving, from 14 district offices, about 1000 homes daily.

Miss Elsie Inez Hugo is now serving as Supervisor of the Kips Bay Center Office of the Visiting Nurse Service of New York.

After twenty-four years as a Presbyterian missionary in Brazil, Miss Anita P. Harris (A.M. 1927) was made principal of Colegio Bennet, outstanding girls' school in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Colegio Bennet has an aver-

age enrollment of 750 girls, from kindergarten through junior college, and is particularly noted for the training of teachers, home economists, directors of religious education, and social workers.

Harry M. Rice (A.M. 1940), principal of the

Bloomfield High School, acted as chairman of a discussion group at the thirty-sixth annual convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, February 16-20 in Ohio. The topic discussed was "How Can Family Education Be More Effective?"

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